R E P O R T R E S U M E S

ED 011 615 08

DIMENSIONS OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING, WORKING PAPERS. PRELIMINARY DRAFT.

BY- WELLMAN, FRANK E.
MISSOURI UNIV., COLUMBIA

REPORT NUMBER BR-6-2212-APP-K PUB DATE 5 AUG 66
EDRS PRICE MF-$0.54 HC-$15.64 391P.

DESCRIPTORS- *VOCATIONAL COUNSELING, *OCCUPATIONAL GUIDANCE, SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS, *INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH, ECONOMIC FACTORS, CULTURAL FACTORS, PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS, ADMINISTRATION, GUIDANCE COUNSELING, *COUNSELING, *RESOURCE GUIDES, COLUMBIA

PRELIMINARY DRAFTS OF THE WORKING PAPERS PREPARED DURING A MULTIDISCIPLINARY TRAINING INSTITUTE ON INNOVATIVE VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PRACTICES ARE INCLUDED IN THIS REPORT. THE CENTRAL THEME OF THE INSTITUTE WAS "DIMENSIONS OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING," WITH EMPHASIS ON ECONOMIC, SOCIOLOGICAL, PSYCHOLOGICAL, AND ADMINISTRATIVE VARIABLES WHICH INFLUENCE VOCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT AMONG HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS. SPECIAL ATTENTION WAS GIVEN TO THE VOCATIONAL COUNSELING OF NONCOLLEGE BOUND STUDENTS. EACH OF THE 16 PAPERS IN THE REPORT FOLLOWED A BASIC FORMAT OF DESCRIBING PROBLEMS, ISSUES, AND SITUATIONS RELEVANT TO THE TOPIC, USING FACTS WHEN AVAILABLE, AND THEN DRAWING IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING IN STATE AND LOCAL PROGRAMS. THE FINAL REPORT OF THE TRAINING INSTITUTE IS AA 000 049. (JH)

ERIC

ED 011615

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WEL
Office of Education
This document has been reproduced exactly as received fro
person or organization originating it. Points of view or opi
stated do not necessarily represent official Office of Educa
position or policy.

DIMENSIONS OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING,

WORKING PAPERS,
(Preliminary Draft)

Prepared by
Participants in the

Training Institute for Vocational
Guidance and Counseling Personnel

University of Missouri
Columbia, Missouri

July 11, 1966 - August 5, 1966

Frank E. Wellman, Director
Robert H. Acord, Assistant Director

FOREWORD

The Training Institute for Vocational Guidance and Counseling Personnel was conducted by the University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri, from July 11, 1966 to August 5, 1966, under a grant from the U.S. Office of Education. The grant was made under provisions of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, P.L. 88-210, Section (4)C.

The central theme of the Institute was "Dimensions of Vocational Counseling" with emphasis upon economic, sociological, psychological and administrative variables which influence vocational decision-making and career development among high school students. Also, special attention was given to the vocational counseling of the noncollege bound student.

The Institute was organized to provide three hours per day for lecture and discussion and an equal amount of time in small group work sessions. The small groups, of ten trainees each, spent one full week together preparing a paper on a topic related to the academic area scheduled for that particular week. New groups were formed and new topics assigned each week of the Institute. The sixteen working papers included in this document are the products of these work groups.

Each of the papers in this compilation follows the basic format of describing problems, issues, and situations relevant to the topic, using facts when available, and then drawing implications for vocational guidance and counseling in State and local programs. These papers, in their present form, are preliminary drafts. Some editing to eliminate duplications and to refine the presentation is contemplated, but it is hoped that in the mean time this document will serve as a resource for those engaged in program development and inservice education with respect to vocational guidance and counseling.

Frank E. Wellman, Director
Training Institute for Vocational
Guidance and Counseling

CONTENTS

Part I ECONOMIC DIMENSIONS OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

1. An Inquiry into Automation and Technological Change

2. Dimensions of a Full Employment Policy and the Vocational Counseling of Adolescents

3. Adjustment to Technological Change--An Analysis of Major Approaches

4. A Cooperative Approach to Youth Employment

Part II SOCIAL AND CULTURAL DIMENSIONS OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

1. The "Stable" Poor

2. The "Copers"

3. The "Unstable" Poor

4. The "Strained"

Part III PSYCHOLOGICAL DIMENSIONS OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

1. The Development of Vocational Perceptions as a Psychological Dimension of Vocational Counseling

2. Facilitating Vocational Decision-making Through the Utilization of Test Data and Other Psychological Information

3. The Utilization of Environmental Information in Vocational Decision-making

4. Reality Testing of Vocational Decisions

Part IV ADMINISTRATIVE DIMENSIONS OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

1. The Use of Economic, Social and Psychological Information in the Development and Improvement of Educational Practices

2. The Coordination of Vocational Guidance and Counseling at the Federal, State and Local Levels

3. The Guidance Function in the Administrative Decision-making Process for the Vocational-Technical Program

4. The Organization of Guidance Services to Facilitate Vocational Decision-making

Training Institute for Vocational Guidance

and Counseling Personnel

July 15, 1966

AN INQUIRY INTO AUTOMATION AND TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE

Group 1

Dellas Chastain	John P. McCarthy
Walt Flannery	Ralph Onarheim
Bruce Gould	Gerald Ross
Allen J. Kelsay	Leo S. Scott
David L. Looney	Bob Stinson

co-chairmen: Allen J. Kelsay
David L. Looney

AN INQUIRY INTO AUTOMATION AND TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE

Our economy which is based upon the free enterprise system has been compelled to meet the challenge of change. As a result, rapid and dramatic changes have become a reality of life rather than just the dreams of a few. No longer can even the most naive person delude himself into thinking in terms of a single vocational decision or career. At the same time, it may be observed that people tend to be slow in accepting changes which affect the established way of life.

Counselors are charged with the responsibility of working with young people who must make vocational decisions in the present for a career in the future. Thus, of all groups of people, counselors need to be informed, aware of scientific change and its impact upon the world of work and how it affects the lives of young people.

This paper is an attempt to pull together a few of the facts as they presently exist concerning technological change and automation. To seek the answers to such questions as, "Does the process of technological change create more jobs? Or does it destroy job opportunity?" "What are the implications of this phenomenon on career choice and vocational counseling?"

However, the information contained in this inquiry will by necessity be very limited so its main objective will not be to inform in detail, rather it will be to stimulate the reader to search for himself that which is necessary to become well informed on this important subject.

A review of the voluminous writings concerning the terms "technological change" and "automation" fail to produce a simple definition to this highly complex and extraordinary phenomenon. However, the various comments by experts in the field do testify to its reputation, if not to its exact character, and give some clues to the scope and influence it has upon industry and employment.

In their discussion of the subject, Shultz and Baldwin differentiate between technological change and automation quite well.

> Today, people are calling every conceivable kind of technological change "automation." This is riding fashion too hard, because there are still thousands of technological changes occuring every week which have nothing at all to do with automation. The term is not a synonym for technological change; it is instead a particular kind of technological change that has gathered momentum since the second World War.
>
> How does automation differ from other types of technological change? One important difference is this: most forms of technological change, like the development of automatic bottle-blowing machines or coal-cutting machinery, are specific to a single industry in their application. Automation, on the other hand, stands for a generalized form of technological change, one potentially applicable over a wide range of manual and white collar operations in a great many industries. In this sense, it promises

to have an impact like that of mass production--another great general principle that has transformed the nature of the manufacturing process (and of many business practices) during the past two generations.

. . . So far so good; but what <u>is</u> the technological nature of automation? The most important fact here is that its technical dimension is not unitary or simple; automation is a family of several quite different technical developments. Nevertheless, there seem to be three major developments which, taken together, account for nearly everything that comes under the heading of automation. These three fundamental developments are:

1. The linking together of conventionally separate manufacturing operations into lines of continuous production through which the product moves "untouched by human hands." This first development, which depends primarily on mechanical engineering for its adoption, we shall refer to simply as "integration," a term already in wide use in the metal-working industries. It is also called "Detroit Automation" in honor of the industry in which it got its start. "Continuous automatic production" is another and perhaps more descriptive term being used.

2. The use of "feed-back" control devices or servomechanisms which allow individual operations to be performed without any necessity for human control. With feed-back, there is always some built-in automatic device for comparing the way in which work is actually being done with the way in which it is supposed to be done and then making automatically any adjustments in the work-process that may be necessary. This second development we shall refer to simply as "feedback" technology; it is dependent primarily not on mechanical but on electrical engineering knowledge and techniques.

3. The development of general and special purpose computing machines capable of recording and storing information (usually in the form of numbers) and of performing both simple and complex mathematical operations on such information. We shall refer to this aspect of automation as "computer technology," a technology that rests primarily on new developments in electrical engineering. (5, pp. 1-3)

John Diebold states that automation is . . . "the integration of machines with each other into fully automatic, and, in some cases, self-regulating systems." (3, p. 10)

Another definition, this one by Ralph J. Cordiner states, "Automation is a continuous automatic production" (2, p. 16) largely in the sense of linking together already highly mechanized individual operations. Automation is a way of work based on the concept of production as a continuous flow, rather than processing by intermittent batches of work. Automation is only one phase in the process of technological progress.

With these many and varied concepts concerning automation and technological change, the counselor needs to weigh all the facts and keep in mind that this is a changing process.

The effect upon the workers' skill level is indicated in the Manpower Research and Training Report.

> Changing skill requirements result from technological advances which render many skills obsolete and diminish the need for unskilled and low-skilled workers while many of the newly created, highly skilled jobs go begging for lack of qualified workers. (6, p. 25)

While this statement implies one result of technological change on man, we cannot charge that it creates mass unemployment. Only occasionally can one trace mass layoffs directly to the doorstep of a machine or process. A partial explanation may be found in the following statements:

> . . . When a major labor-saving invention is introduced in an industry which is in its

> rapid-growth stage . . . the invention may help to spur further rapid growth, especially through price cuts, and total employment in the industry may increase substantially.
>
> . . . But the fact is that when an industry has reached maturity--for example, when there is already one car for each three people--it just is not possible to achieve further dramatic increases in sales, even with the largest price cuts within the realm of industry . . .

Still others say, that in the long run, technology creates more jobs than it destroys; in fact, there is no such thing as technological unemployment--unemployment is the result of other factors.

However, Grant Venn warns us,

> The full impact of the new technology has been slow to register on the American consciousness. Many educators and other public leaders have not discerned that the forces of technology are immediate in importance and national in scope, and that they carry serious consequences for the economic and social life of the entire country. (7, p. 5)

Most young people are generally aware that there are changes taking place in our economic system, but they are not aware of the kind, impact, or scope of these changes. Technical change sometimes is referred to as the latest stage in the evolution of technological means for removing the burdens of work, but many think of it as an event which is just as earth shaking as was the Industrial Revolution of a century ago. The Automation movement, or to use a more advanced term, "Cybernation," may threaten the very foundation of our economic system. Michael describes automation as follows:

> Using these machines does not merely involve replacing men by having machines do tasks that men did before. It is as John Diebold says, a way of ' thinking as much as it is a way of doing' . . . It is no longer necessary to think in terms of individual machines, or even in terms of groups of machines; instead for the first time, it is practical to look at an entire production or information handling process as an integrated system . . . (4, p. 5)

The efficiencies of the processes of cybernation are generally accepted. They perform with a precision and a rapidity unmatched in humans. They can be built to detect and correct errors in their own performance. They can make judgments based upon data programmed into them and when called upon, store, research, and recall information when needed and correlate data with new information as it is received. Processing social security, tax information, and census data are examples of this function.

It would be ideal if we could identify those industries which have been automated, but this appears to be an impossible task because of the very nature of the automation process. Technological change in the form of automation or cybernation has permeated practically all industries. We are, however, able to obtain some idea as to the degree of automation found in American business and industry by reviewing current articles and reports on this subject.

Automation is being used successfully in such indusries as steel mills, coal mines, manufacturing of engine blocks, cloth weaving, sorting and grading everything from oranges to bank checks, etc. New machines are being manufactured

and sold "off the shelf" to industry. These machines are designed to perform hundreds of routine maintenance or assembly line functions.

On the other end of the continuum, computers are being used rather regularly to analyze market portfolios for brokers; compute the best combinations of crops and livestock for given farm conditions; design and "fly" typical and extreme condition rockets and airplanes--before they are built; design, in terms of costs and traffic flows, characteristics, the appropriate angles and grades for complex traffic interchanges; keep up-to-date inventory records and print new stock orders as automatically computed rates of sales and inventory status indicate. Computers have been programmed to write mediocre TV dramas, write music, translate from one language to another; and simulate some brain processes such as playing games by themselves which involve a vast number of variables and contingencies. The capabilities of these machines are unlimited. <u>They contain extraordinary implicators for the emancipation or enslavement of mankind</u>.

It is no doubt obvious to the reader that in surveying the literature in relation to technological change we find many inconsistencies. Differences of opinion exist both in regards to the rate of technological change and the significance this change will have on the economy as a whole and more specifically on the labor forces, at present and in the near future.

> In attempting to analyze and evaluate the trend of productivity, it is almost impossible to avoid controversy. Even those analysts who are trying to formulate objective judgments may come to different conclusions using the same body of information. In addition, productivity is caught up in the net of collective bargaining, where workers are concerned with income and job security and employers with cost and profits.

Two major sectors of our economy that have been significantly affected by technological change are agriculture which has increased the output per man hour at an average of 5.8 percent per year in the fifteen year period since 1947 and manufacturing which has gone up in the last five years at an average annual rate of 3.4 percent.

Out of the literature concerning automation and technological change there seems to be some agreement on the following points.

1. The best measurement of technological change is output per man hour.
2. There has been an increase in the rate of technological change during the post war period.
3. Automation may push down the demand for workers with little training while pushing up the demand for workers with large amounts of training.
4. Changes to automation will be gradual rather than abrupt. (1, p. 39)
5. Automatic production is only applicable to some sections of industry. (1, p. 39)

6. The very high initial expense of automatic control systems may prevent their installations by small firms. (3, p. 37)
7. The prospective increase in leisure time raises questions about the nature of our educational system. (4, p. 16)
8. From the long range point of view, it is probable that automation will be responsible for a new type of labor force. In our dynamic economy with its ever-increasing needs there is no set number of jobs. The implication of such a shift for retaining of workers is an important challenge facing both organized labor and management. (2, p. 19)
9. Automation is a facet of our economy which needs to be investigated more thoroughly.

A review of these comments concerning technological change and the experience of counselors as they work with young people could suggest some conflict between the prevailing concepts of society toward the world of work and the changing world of work. The following are four illustrations of this point:

1. Counselors working with young men and women too frequently encounter students who are prone to think in terms of spending their entire life in one locale. They hope to marry, work, raise a

family and eventually retire all in the "old home town." After all this is their world, so to speak, where they have their friends, their group, their family. In many such cases it is nearly impossible for them to accept the idea of living in another state, or if they are from a rural area, to think of living in a city.

However, it is evident as technological change and automation continue to have an impact upon our economy that a person may live in many communities, and encounter many different sub-cultures as he re-locates time and again in order to take the greatest advantage of career opportunities.

2. The counselor often counsels with youth who are thinking in terms of a single life-time occupation. This decision may have been made because of adult or school pressures to make an early and final vocational committment. Perhaps his choice was based on his observation that his favorite uncle was successful at law so he too decides to be a lawyer, or perhaps the influence is his best friend who makes "good" money at the local creamery. Many times this decision is made at a very early age when he has had very limited experiences and far too often his mind is closed to exploring other possibilities. His choice of

school subjects are selected on the bases of this decision and he tends to limit his field of choice because of the narrow direction he has taken. Frequently, he feels that he will lose face should he change his mind.

Ample evidence has been presented to suggest that he will probably be forced by technological change to make several occupational choices. Some authorities speak of an average of six to seven choices in a life time.

3. Many young people who graduate from high school and who do not intend to enter an institution of higher learning, feel that they have completed their education. If their education has prepared them for employment or if they enter the labor market and find a job, they tend to feel that education has nothing else to offer them.

Due to the accelerated change which is taking place in the labor market, the disappearing occupation, the up-grading of job skills all point to the need for developing a concept of continuing education. Graduation from high school, college, vocational or technical institution, completion of special coarses are all only steps in a continuous need for vocational preparation.

4. Work is and rightly so, often thought of as not only providing a livelihood, but being personnally rewarding within itself. Often we hear people comment upon how satisfying their work is. As machines become responsible for more and more production (note agriculture) and more sophisticated in its efforts and man becomes more of a "button pusher" and "dial watcher" he will become more dependent upon means other than work to justify his existence, and to recapture that feeling of satisfaction which has for so long been derived from his labors. In addition with increased production per man hour, shorter work weeks and longer vactions will give leisure time activities greater importance, and he will have to learn to make leisure time a means to an end rather than an end within itself.

The implications of automation on the work force and career choice are far reaching. With the on set of new and varied jobs, continually changing and expanding due to technological changes, the young person about to go into the world of work has a very real problem to solve. He must go through the same career choice steps that he always had to to accomplish i.e., tentative choice, research, reading, interviewing, reconsidering and finally deciding. A whole new world of occupations has developed through the automation

process. The assembly line worker who used to put the big nuts on the left hand wheels of the new Chevrolet, could perform this task with ten minutes training. Now this job has been taken over by a self-regulating machine and the worker who operates it must be highly trained not only to operate it but perhaps even maintain it as well. The career choice steps were never more important.

But how can this young person do these things necessary to make the right decision? He must have guidance. He must have help in making these dramatic decisions. Here is the job of a well informed, well oriented counselor. This counselor needs to know the current changes in the work force due to the advancements that have taken place. Changes in skill requirements of many occupations are moving in diverse directions: for some occupations, new technology creates needs for more advanced skills in other occupations; the effect of technological change is simplification of jobs. One job might demand technological training while some other, as the computer takes over, prove that the semi and unskilled worker are becoming less significant.

As these patterns of occupational change develop, a few interesting effects have emerged. One such effect is that as automation takes over, the number of production workers decreases while the number of engineers, maintenance men, foremen, etc. increases. The number of workers subject to instability and insecurity is thus reduced--a very important fact that the young person needs to be aware of.

Another general effect of technological change is that less input in necessary for the goals desired. The shortened work day and work week are significant points necessary for the counselor to impart to this student. The automation process has had a profound effect upon women in the labor force. This has been brought about by the very great demand for white collar, professional and clerical occupations needed to operate the huge businesses of today.

The economic changes in our society have made the decision for an occupation a very vital one indeed and only by the help of a well informed counselor can all the facts be brought to bear and the youngster helped in making a decision which will in most instances effect his whole life.

The problem of technological change and automation has created a pressing need for a central agency to gather, process and disseminate information to the vocational counselors who are working with the students. State departments of education are in a strategic position to perform this function. Many state departments have already recognized the need of local school districts for information pertaining to programs and activities of federal, state, and local governments; data on industrial activity, i.e., employment trends and activity, occupational structural change, etc.; training programs available through business, industry, and government; apprenticeship programs and labor union activity and/or placement policies.

State departments can fill the gap which now exists. They can serve as a clearing house and resource agency for guidance counselors and school administrators who are faced with the task of designing educational programs which will meet the needs of students who <u>will</u> enter the labor market sooner or later--and most students enter the labor market sooner rather than later.

Technological change and automation are not new to the reader of this paper and what has been said regarding some of the facts and trends is not revolutionary. Neither are the implications and insinuations which have been made. Never-the-less, one fact is apparent to most who observe and who are involved in counseling and this fact is, little in comparison to need has actually been done to bridge the gap between school and the world of work. This is not to say that counselors have been negligent in their work, rather it is the old story of too little too late. There exists a lag between rapid technological advancement and human understanding, a lag that can be shortened only through greater efforts and knowledge.

The following are recommendations to the state guidance service and the high school counselor. These recommendations fall short of the solution to the problem, but if implemerted, they would be a step in what we feel would be the right direction.

1. Counselors should work for improved guidance services in terms of personnel, lower counselor-student ratio, adequate staff and facilities so that sufficient time will be available to spend with the individual students as they make vocational or career decisions.
2. The counselor should involve himself in curriculum changes and development to keep the curriculum in tune and up-to-date with occupational trends.
3. Counselors should conduct in-service programs for counselors and staffs to keep others well informed so information given to students is based on present facts and future trends and not on anyone's personal past experience.
4. Counselors should promote good working relations with trade unions, employer associations, business and industrial firms, professional societies in order to involve people in guidance programs who have first hand knowledge of a wide range of occupational fields.
5. Counselors should be involved in a program of public information to students, faculties, administrators, parents and the community about the guidance program and its place in education.

It is evident that the state as well as the local guidance programs must coordinate their efforts to provide

the quality service needed. It is for this reason that the following recommendations are directed toward the state offices.

Some specific types of state activities might include:

1. Meetings and workshops of counselors, educators and industrial leaders to facilitate the exchange of ideas and open avenues of communications. Problems of automation and trends in industry can thus be anticipated, and correct and reliable knowledge relayed to the affected people. This could be a factor in bringing about needed educational changes to alleviate anticipated problems.
2. Collection, analysis, and dissemination of data on industrial changes and trends which will affect education, training and employment opportunities.
3. Collection, analysis, and dissemination of data on vocational training programs; local, statewide, and area wide, and the correlation of this data with the latest data on federal activities in the areas of technical training.
4. Interpreting and disseminating current data on new laws and regulations (both federal and state) regarding education.
5. Serving as a clearing house for new ideas, programs and projects from any source, local, state or national which may find an application in that state.

6. Promoting needed legislation within the state to remedy existing educational problems in the vocational fields, to encourage and make recommendations in regard to vocational training centers and to update laws and regulations which interfere with sound training and employment practices.

CONCLUSIONS

There seems to be no doubt that there is a definite increase in the rate of technological developments at present. The bulk of this increased rate at present is mainly attributable to automation. The greater increases in the rate of technological developments are at present in the in the agricultural and manufacturing industries. This is not to imply that other facets of the economy will not be affected in the near future. There are, however, no indications that abrupt changes will take place in any industry in the foreseeable future. There are problems that now exist within the economy that are mainly attributable to this increased rate of technological development. There seem to be definite indications that problems caused by this increased rate may become more acute unless steps are taken to alleviate them. The greatest problem at present seems to lie in the fact that at a time when the speed up of technological developments is reaching its highest rate, the largest number of new workers will be attempting to enter

the labor force. These new workers will mainly be teenagers without skills or experience who will be seeking employment in industry where the greatest unemployment already exists. Although there has been a great deal of disagreement between the various agencies concerned with employment over the tack technological developments will take, there seems to be emerging a definite direction.

This committee feels that every effort should be made to anticipate the direction technological development may take and to promote programs to head off serious problems that may arise.

We feel that local, state and federal agencies must work together as a team to do the job efficiently and thoroughly.

REFERENCES

1. Challenge of Automation. The papers delivered at the Conference by the Committee on Economic Policy of the Congress of Industrial Organizations. Public Affairs Press, 1955.

2. Cordiner, Ralph J. Automation in the Manufacturing Industries. Challenge of Automation. The papers delivered at the Conference by the Committee on Economic Policy of the Congress of Industrial Organizations. Public Affairs Press, 1955.

3. Diebold, John. Applications and Uses. Challenge of Automation. The papers delivered at the Conference by the Committee on Economic Policy of the Congress of Industrial Organizations. Public Affairs Press, 1955.

4. Michael, Donald N. Cybernation: The Silent Conquest. The Fund for the Republic, Inc., 1962.

5. Shultz, George P. and George B. Baldwin. Automation, a New Dimension to Old Problems. Public Affairs Press, Washington, D.C., 1955.

6. United States Department of Labor. Manpower Report of the President. U. S. Government Printing Office, 1964.

7. Venn, Grant. Man, Education, and Work. American Council on Education, 1964.

DIMENSIONS OF A FULL EMPLOYMENT POLICY AND THE VOCATIONAL COUNSELING OF ADOLESCENTS

A Report

Submitted in

Partial Fulfillment of the Course Requirements

of Guidance 400

by

Reynold Erickson, Chairman
Gerald Bolmeier, Secretary
Carmon Bixler
William Erpenbach
Russell Frid
Jim Nickell
Dermot Schnack
Leonard Timmerman
Charles Wright
John Zeug

July 1966

ERIC

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	1
	Introduction	1
	Statement of the Problem	4
II.	YOUTH EMPLOYMENT	5
	Preparing Adolescents for the World of Work	5
	Adolescents in the Labor Force	6
	Public and Private Concern for Adolescent Employment	8
III.	REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE	10
	Literature Relating to School Curriculums	10
	Literature Relating to Vocational Development Counseling	11
	Literature Relating to Disadvantaged Groups	12
	Implications for Vocational Counseling as Seen in the Literature	14
IV.	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	16
	Summary and Conclusions	16
	Recommendations	18
V.	BIBLIOGRAPHY	20

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

The experience of work in American society is important to the individual both economically and psychologically. Full employment implies that work is available for everyone seeking a job. To work is to find meaning, to find purpose in the American culture. Unemployment, then, becomes a problem not only in terms of a reduced standard of living for the unemployed individual, but also from the standpoint of its effect on his total well-being, acceptance by society, and personal outlook on life.

Generally speaking, to be considered as unemployed a person must want work, be seeking work, but unsuccessful in finding employment. While unemployment is a recognized phenomenon among the American labor force, there are differing statistical interpretations of unemployment and various viewpoints about the seriousness of the problem. For example, differences may be illustrated by comparing two reports, one from the United States Department of Labor and the other by economist Gunnar Myrdal. Unemployment in the American labor force in 1965 was reported by the United States Department of Labor at 4.6 percent. (22, p. 9) This falls within the 3 to 5 percent range considered by most economists to be "normal" unemployment. But Myrdal, in a 1962 publication, estimates that real unemployment in the United States fluctuates

around a level of 9 percent of the civilian labor force. (10, p. 18) Furthermore, Myrdal states that there is a visible trend of rising unemployment from the forties and fifties, (10, p. 14) while the Labor Department reports the most recent annual unemployment rate as the lowest since 1957. (22, p. 9)

These differences tend to emphasize the fact that unemployment is a somewhat vague concept that may include some persons who should not be included or may exclude others who should be counted, resulting in discrepancies in reporting. The differences may be partially explained by Myrdal's inclusion of part-time workers (underemployed) among the unemployed.

Probably more important than the discrepancies in method of reporting is the question of the seriousness of the level of unemployment in the United States; that is, can we accept the idea that an unemployment rate of 3 to 5 percent is "normal"?

Economically, this rate may be normal. Lebergott, (9, p. 47) for example, is willing to settle for a practicable minimum goal of 3.6 percent which includes 3.5 percent cyclical unemployment (defined operationally as those unemployed less than fifteen weeks) and 0.1 percent long-term unemployment (those unemployed over fifteen weeks). These figures, while helpful in understanding the American economy, may be meaningless in terms of understanding the impact of personal income on the individual and his family. Level of income and the degree of underemployment are relevant data that may be overlooked in evaluating the impact of unemployment in the United States.

Anything less than full employment is a matter of concern, since it is directly related to a family's purchasing power, the standard of

living provided by the income, and the resulting drain on society if the income is inadequate. National statistics on unemployment do not reveal directly the adequacy of the income provided by part or even full employment.

The importance of employment to the nation's economy and the general welfare of all citizens was emphasized when Congress adopted the 1946 Employment Act, PL 304. Maintenance of a high level of employment was explained in the act as follows:

> The Congress hereby declares that it is the continuing policy and responsibility of the Federal Government to use all practicable means consistent with its need and obligations and other essential considerations of national policy, with the assistance and cooperation of industry, agriculture, labor, and state and local governments, to coordinate and utilize all its plans, functions, and resources for the purpose of creating and maintaining, in a manner calculated to foster and promote free enterprise and the general welfare, conditions under which there will be afforded useful employment opportunities, including self-employment, to those able, willing and seeking to work, and to promote maximum employment, production and purchasing power.

While the policy statement does not mention specific immediate goals, the act implied the need for government intervention in creating jobs, retraining and/or relocating the unemployed, job selection, and other aspects of employment and reemployment. It also included attempts to reduce poverty, raise the level of education, alter behavior patterns of people, and otherwise act as an agent of change.

Guidance and counseling also became a matter of national policy when financial support was provided in the George Barden Act, the National Defense Education Act, the Vocational Education Act, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, and others. The implication seems to be that the counselor is the person best qualified to serve as

an agent of change, to modify human behavior into acceptable societal patterns.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

With the above introductory comments in mind, the problem of this paper is stated as follows:

How is the vocational counseling of adolescents related to the implementation of a full employment policy?

For the school counselor, many questions are raised when consideration is given to possible action implied by a policy of full employment. For instance, does government intervention violate the principle of free choice in an open society? Is the role of the counselor, as a helping person, in conflict with the role implied by governmental programs? What is or should be the role of the school, and of school counselors, in carrying out the social theory implied in the 1946 Employment Act and subsequent legislation? How can schools and counselors utilize opportunities provided in legislation to reduce unemployment and poverty? What are the moral and ethical issues involved in the counselor's attempting to affect values of counselees? How does counselor involvement in the implementation of employment programs relate to individual choice?

CHAPTER II

YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

There is an awareness today that despite a dynamic economic expansion and the forecasts of continued prosperity, the employment rates among certain groups remain high, particularly among our youth. As the numbers of these young people entering the labor force will continue to increase in the next decade, efforts must be made to provide improved avenues of employment for them. Of paramount importance is that these young men and women be provided training and encouragement to develop the initiative necessary to prepare themselves with job-entry skills appropriate to their intersts and abilities.

Concern for the employment of youth is not new. The late President John F. Kennedy established the President's Committee on Youth Employment in November of 1961. Responsibility for youth employment was strongly affirmed in the Committee's first report to the President in April, 1963, when it was noted, "The task cannot be delegated, and must not be sidestepped. Both public and private groups at every level--local, State, and Federal--must participate wholeheartedly and unselfishly to assure success." (12, p. 13)

However, it seems apparent that the primary responsibility for preparing the young people of today for employment tomorrow rests more and more within our nation's schools. In a June, 1963, report of the

President's Committee on Youth Employment, the Subcommittee on Counseling, Guidance, and Motivation noted:

> Counselors armed with reliable information concerning present vocational opportunities and future trends can do much to motivate all young people to make and carry out educational and vocational plans in line with their abilities and needs of the national economy. (13, p. 37)

ADOLESCENTS IN THE LABOR FORCE

The conclusion that it is more difficult today for a boy or girl with a high school diploma, or worse still without one, to get a job is not startling. Furthermore, economists are quick to indicate that without a substantial expansion of our economy it is unrealistic to expect that the job picture for youth will get any brighter.

Problems related to the high incidence of unemployment or underemployment of young people have many dimensions. Basically, however, there are but two primary causes. One is the lack of jobs. The other is the lack of employability. (13, p. 11)

The conservation of all youth and the basic worth of every individual have long been society's concern in the United States. Because the school is society's best device in providing for the needs of its youth, the school has a responsibility to provide suitable preparation for all youth. It is essential that schools exert greater effort in the demanding task of preparing for job entry that proportion of youth whose education ceases at, or below, the high school level. (13, p. 12)

Today many of our young people lack experience to qualify for employment. Employers cannot help but look at occupational experience as a measure of quality. Many studies suggest that work skills are

learned on the job. If this assumption is true, it is not surprising that an employer will place experience high on the list of qualifications. The importance of experience has tended to emphasize the significance of work study and related programs.

Today, close to a million youths between the ages of 16 and 21 are out of school and out of work. These young people make up 20 percent of the total unemployed workers in the United States. The rate of unemployment is considerably higher for the Negro youths and high school dropouts. Added to this situation is the fact that more than two million other youth will seek entry into an increasingly selective and competitive labor market each year. (13, p. 11)

Unemployment has always been substantially higher among young persons than among adults. Department of Labor figures for June, 1966, indicated the seasonal unemployment rate for 18-19 year-old whites was at 15 percent; for Negroes of the same age the rate was 32 percent. For the labor force as a whole, the rate was 4 percent. (16)

High rates of unemployment for young people have often been accepted by our society as an inevitable consequence of a free market economy. However, this problem has taken on increased urgency due to a surge of new young workers, the result of high birth rates after World War II, and a decline in the number of unskilled and semi-skilled jobs which formerly provided first employment opportunities for new young workers. (9, p. 116)

Young people who fail to complete an education in keeping with their potential are likely to be candidates for unemployment or under-employment in adult life. This in return will lead to a loss in our nation's manpower resources.

Guidance and counseling programs, with emphasis on interest and motivation, can do much in preventing the situation we face today. Creating interest and developing motivation in young people to achieve at their maximum levels of capability are fostered by a complex of values. These values have emerged from the home, school, church, community, and peer groups. All of these agencies must become involved in any effort to upgrade the aspirational level of young people who have adopted goals below their potential. (13, pp. 37-38)

Empirical evidence suggests that qualified counselors with a satisfactory student ratio can improve the achievement level of boys and girls, reduce dropout rates, encourage career planning appropriate to individual needs and to employment opportunities and needs, and reduce unemployment and other problems related to youth. To achieve these ends, guidance programs should be continuous from the early elementary grades through the adult years.

Legislative programs which provided limited federal financial support have demonstrated that such support is an effective means of stimulating state and local leadership in the expansion and improvement of guidance and counseling programs. (13, p. 38)

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE CONCERN FOR ADOLESCENT EMPLOYMENT

As noted earlier in this chapter, there are definite expressions in print regarding the need for public and private participation in programs of employment for young people. At this time, it appears, however, that the most substantially developed youth employment projects are sponsored by public agencies.

The Economic Report of the President in January, 1966, reviewed federal legislation passed during 1965 affecting educational opportunities, the parallel having been drawn between decreasing unemployment and further education. The report stated

> Programs adopted in 1965 will open new educational opportunities for millions of children and youths. These new programs will aid many disadvantaged children to get off to an equal start with others; assure them school facilities comparable with those of others; and remove some of the financial blocks which might prematurely halt their progress toward higher education. For persons no longer in school, the new measures will provide useful skills and training, a help to update skills outmoded by rapid technological change, thus making them more productive and preparing them for better jobs. (5, p. 96)

Some of the federal programs adopted in 1965 affecting the education of adolescents included Project Head Start, The Elementary and Secondary Education Act, The Higher Education Act, The Job Corps, and others. These programs as well as other related ones are summarized in capsule form in the December, 1965, Occupational Outlook Quarterly (Vol. 9, No. 4) as published by the U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

America's need, as seen in 1963 by subcommittees of the President's Committee on Youth Employment, is for greater economic strength. Specifically, the subcommittees noted that manpower utilization is a necessary component of economic strength. In order to achieve manpower utilization to its fullest potential, the subcommittee's report states, "The nation's manpower resources require provision for effective and sufficient guidance and counseling, as well as educational and training services to give proper direction to individual effort and achievement." (13, p. 36)

Among the threats to the efforts directed at improving the nation's economy through full employment is that of the school dropout. It is necessary that all segments of the social order work toward upgrading the aspirational level of youth who have value systems which make them candidates for early school leaving. Additionally, an emphasis in counseling youth who have college as a goal should not be carried out at the expense of provisions for guidance of youth who will enter the labor force directly upon leaving the secondary school. (2, p. 13)

LITERATURE RELATING TO SCHOOL CURRICULUMS

The secondary school has at its command a variety of techniques and resources to use in carrying out the responsibility of providing effective and sufficient guidance and counseling . Kemp suggests that individual and group counseling be combined with group guidance activities. (8, p. 15)

Kemp further recommends planning for job placement, including work experience programs of on-the-job training through cooperative work programs or work-study projects. As additional resources within the scope of the school's program, Kemp identifies teachers, parents, and community agencies. Kemp also recommends that a pupil be assigned the same counselor throughout his stay at school. (8, p. 15)

LITERATURE RELATING TO VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENTAL COUNSELING

Adolescents need an opportunity to explore the world of work. To this end, the role of the school counselor in this endeavor becomes one of assisting the young man or woman to assess aptitudes and abilities. The Detroit Public Schools in 1962 undertook to outline a program of vocational information in a position paper which stated in part:

> To be effective in any guidance program which prepares students for the world of work, counselors should have the latest information about (a) the social and economic trends of the job market, and its opportunities and changes, (b) occupations in which there is greatest demand, (c) opportunity for advancement, (d) employment security, (e) fields in which there are shortages of available workers, and (f) fields in which there are shortages of competent workers. For each of the specialty areas for which training is provided in the high school, the counselor needs to be informed about (a) job opportunities, (b) the range of jobs available, (c) related occupations, (d) occupational hazards, (e) opportunitites for training beyond high school, (f) location of training programs, and (g) how to make arrangements for the students to get such training. (4)

Wrenn, in a study of vocational choice, identifies five factors that contribute to a lessening of vocational guidance and counseling emphasis by some junior and senior high school counselors. These are reviewed in part as follows:

1. Vocational counseling is more complex, more difficult to master. Current occupations are changing rapidly in their demands--counselors find it hard to keep up.

2. Counselors now understand that ATTITUDES are significant motivation indicators and must be considered. These involve attitudes towards others, towards occupations and educational plans, and most of all toward self.

3. The counselor is under pressure to respond to the urgent demands made upon him by the school program, staff, and patrons. He must have some freedom within which to operate. He should be responsive to student needs as these are revealed to him.

4. The counselor sometimes follows the assumption that working with those who will go to college is "most worthwhile." Counseling is of equal importance to those who want to go to work at once.

5. Some counselors consider other aspects of counseling such as "personal adjustment" counseling to be a "higher level" of work than "vocational counseling." (25, pp. 101-107)

LITERATURE RELATING TO DISADVANTAGED GROUPS

The term "disadvantaged," when invoked, carries a connotation of its own. It then becomes necessary to develop a profile of the disadvantaged youth that must be dealt with when considering employment practices. These young people make it necessary for the effective counselor to have an awareness of the problems met by disadvantaged youth.

Furthermore, the counselor must have knowledge of such factors as community cultural backgrounds, effects of poverty and discrimination, social status, etc.

In working with the disadvantaged youth, Kemp suggests that a counselor

1. Show his interest in the student by exhibiting patience, being available when needed, and not giving up when understanding does not develop in a short space of time.

2. Establish rapport with the student. This may involve working on home problems with the parents, being realistic in advice, and helping the student to develop his own values.

3. Develop skill in "hearing" nonverbal communications. This comes from working with the student himself, knowledge of his home environment, and awareness of the influences which affect his outlook.

4. Work with the teachers to discover those positive qualities in the student which should be encouraged and developed.

5. Work with the teachers to build up the student's self-concept.

6. Be perceptive as to preventive action that should be taken to forestall the need of punitive action.

7. Work with the teachers in formulating a curriculum which the student can handle.

8. Help students obtain scholarships, where they can qualify and where they can benefit from such financial assistance.

9. Help to supervise students who are on work-study programs, assist them to adjust to their work duties, and keep in contact with their employers.

10. Provide guidance and counseling for out-of-school young people, both graduates and dropouts, until they are 21 years of age. (8, p. 14)

Another facet of the "disadvantaged" youth groups involved in the unemployment dilemma is that of the school dropout. Data derived through recent studies of this problem have made it possible now to analyze the employment problems and character of the dropout. Super, in an extensive study on dropouts,points out:

> The dropout being typically of lower socioeconomic status, lesser intelligence, and by definition less well educated than the graduate, his career is likely to be unstable or multiple-trial. That is, after he leaves school, he is likely to change jobs, field of work, and place of work a number of times and with no apparent rationale . . . the dropout's career consists of a sequence of unrelated positions. It lacks security, for the unskilled and semi-skilled jobs which tend to be his give him no opportunity to acquire skills and knowledge to make up for those he did not acquire in school, and the only equity which he can build up in a job or occupation is that of seniority. But seniority being difficult to acquire in many kinds of unskilled and semi-skilled jobs, he acquires no equity and no security. (17, pp. 67-68)

However, to understand the limitations of the dropouts is insufficient. A developmental plan of action for working with these youth should be adapted to each community's needs. Counseling, in turn, must be a major part of this action. In this respect, Super contends:

> The term "vocational development" has enjoyed a certain amount of popularity recently . . . But development can involve deterioration as well as growth, and the vocational development of the dropout appears, in far too many cases, to involve after a few years deterioration rather than continuing growth. As counselors, as educators valuing human beings, we are concerned with the guidance of positive vocational development, with the guidance of growth rather than of deterioration. The dropout obviously presents a special challenge, in which early developmental measures must be taken in order to foster continuing and healthy growth rather than early deterioration or atrophy. (17, p. 82)

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL COUNSELING AS SEEN IN THE LITERATURE

The literature has shown that there is no single or concise solution to the problem of unemployment among our youth. Rather, the most effective approach to the problem would seem to rest in the multi-utilization of training facilities and personnel in cooperation with labor, business, and industry.

Further, such an approach should be subject to on-going evaluation. This evaluation, along with recommendations for future implementation, should be made available for distribution to other agencies working with youth employment.

Kemp cites this goal for vocational training: All contributing agencies of the community should work in cooperation with educators to achieve vocational education goals aimed at helping:

> . . . all young people develop their individual interests and abilities for work in occupations requiring less than a Baccalaureate degree, and for which there is, or is expected

to be, an economic demand; and to encourage and prepare persons for continuing study or for training at a higher level. (8, pp. 30-31)

The task for educators will not be one of automatic or systematic success in alleviating the unemployment of youth, particularly disadvantaged youth. Conclusions of studies by Kemp have served this warning:

> The job of identifying and working with socioeconomically handicapped young people who cannot cope with the demands of school is obviously not one for the counselors alone. Nor will their efforts always be successful. It has been proved that individual concern and attention to the student, coupled with skillful guidance and counseling, can often mean the difference between a continued sense of hopelessness, or a desire to give education another chance. (8, p. 15)

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Full employment is a concept which is essential to the development of all individuals in our democratic society. The effects of unemployment and underemployment on individuals, particularly children in the families affected, is so disastrous as to warrant concerted effort to minimize the problem.

Unemployment, both long and short term, is a particularly serious problem for youth and undereducated persons (those with eighth grade education or less). Teen unemployment of a long range nature doubled between 1957 and 1965. In addition, 40 percent of long-term jobless persons had 8 years or less of education in 1965. However, in 1965, one-third of the teenage youth who were unemployed 15 weeks or longer were seeking only part-time work. A lack of job experience or related educational experiences appear to be an important factor.

For a variety of reasons, schools have not adequately contributed to the preparation of all students to take their places in the world of work. Programs have been limited, especially for the student of lower academic ability; equipment and facilities have been inadequate; staff has often been ill prepared, by attitude and training, to understand and meet the needs of the non-academically oriented student; traditional patterns of subject and graduation requirements have worked to the disadvantage of the student without scholastic inclinations or with different value patterns; and counseling has been limited by high

student-counselor ratios, minimum training, and inappropriate assignments.

An effective school program contributing to full employment will necessitate a coordinated and cooperative effort involving parents, school counselors and teachers, employment counselors, representatives of business and industry, and all community, State and Federal agencies having a vested interest in the welfare of youth.

The contribution of the public school, while broad in scope, must be seen as only one part of a collective effort directed toward full employment. A number of programs of training, retraining, job placement and relocation are underway under Federal, State and local auspices. Labor and industry have similarly developed programs aimed at full employment. All have significant contributions to make.

The concept of full employment implies intervention of authority to regulate labor supply, demand, and related problems. Inasmuch as this may also involve manipulation of individuals, counselors have expressed concern as to the means and kinds of manipulation used, so that they do not violate the right of the individual for free choice, but rather open up opportunities within which free choice may be made. It is the counselor's unique contribution to provide information and promote the decision-making process in a non-authoritarian, non-evaluative relationship.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Public schools should assume greater responsibility for contributing to the goal of full employment, as stated in the Employment Act of 1946. The schools should, in fact, serve as active agents of change and key contribution to collective efforts directed toward meaningful employment with adequate income for all members of society.

2. All school personnel should become better informed about existing needs and changing patterns in the labor market. Teachers and counselors should be encouraged, through in-service education and personal involvement, to study, observe, and participate in work experiences outside the field of education.

3. Educational institutions must make a more direct contribution toward vocational training and guidance of youth who will terminate their formal education with the completion of high school. Specifically, there should be expanded programs of vocational counseling, greater opportunities for vocational preparation, enlargement of work-study programs, and active assistance in vocational and educational placement.

4. The total school curriculum should include more study of anticipated social and cultural changes, including alterations in patterns of employment with subsequent effects on the individual.

5. Greater efforts should be made at early identification of potential dropouts. Methods should be developed to provide meaningful experiences through application of behavioral techniques and environmental manipulation within the school setting. Efforts should be made to encourage dropouts to plan and complete an educational program.

6. The school counselor's primary responsibility must be to the individual, and he must therefore resist societal pressures to force job choice. The counselor should attempt to promote purposeful vocational decisions by encouraging a school climate and creating a counseling atmosphere in which the individual has maximum opportunity to broaden his perspective, develop his unique qualities, and enlarge his choices of job alternatives.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Arbuckle, Dugald S. "Counseling and Dropouts--General Consideration." Guidance and the School Dropout, pp. 173-190. Washington: National Education Association and American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1964.

2. Cervantes, Lucius F. The Dropout--Causes and Cures. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1965.

3. Committee for Economic Development. Economic Literacy for Americans--A Program for Schools and for Citizens. Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development. New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1964.

4. Committee on the World of Work. "Preparing Pupils for the World of Work." Detroit: Detroit Public Schools, 1962. (Mimeographed)

5. Council of Economic Advisers. Economic Report of the President. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1966.

6. Form, William H.,and Nosow, Sigmund. Man, Work, and Society. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1962.

7. Guiding Today's Youth. Monterey: California Test Bureau, 1962.

8. Kemp, Barbara H. The Youth We Haven't Saved. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1966.

9. Lebergott, Stanley. Men Without Work. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.

10. Myrdal, Gunnar. Challenge to Affluence. New York: Random House, 1962.

11. National Committee on Employment and Youth. Getting Hired, Getting Trained. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1965.

12. President's Committee on Youth Employment. The Challenge of Jobless Youth. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963.

13. President's Committee on Youth Employment. Reports of Subcommittees of the President's Committee on Youth Employment. Washington: U. S. Department of Labor, June, 1963.

14. Seidman, Jerome M. The Adolescent--A Book of Readings. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960.

15. Soule, George. The New Science of Economics An Introduction. New York: Fawcett World Library, 1965.

16. St. Louis Post-Dispatch, July 12, 1966.

17. Super, Donald E. "Vocational Development of High School Dropout," Guidance and the School Dropout, pp. 67-68. Washington: National Education Association and American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1964.

18. U. S. Department of Commerce Bureau of the Census. Americans at Mid-Decade. Washington: Government Printing Office, March, 1966.

19. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1964. Special Labor Force Report No. 54. Washington: Government Printing Office, June, 1965.

20. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Long-Term Unemployment in the 1960's. Washington: Government Printing Office, September, 1965.

21. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Occupational Outlook Quarterly, Vol. 9, No. 4. Washington: Government Printing Office, December, 1965.

22. U. S. Department of Labor. Manpower Report of the President. Washington: Government Printing Office, March, 1966.

23. U. S. Statistics at Large, 79th Congress, 2nd Session. 1946 Vol. 60, Part I, Public Laws Reorganization Plans, Public Law 304 Employment Act of 1946.

24. Wisconsin State Employment Service. What About Careers for Youth Who Do Not Plan to Continue Their Education Beyond High School? Madison: Industrial Commission, February, 1966.

25. Wrenn, Gilbert C. "What Has Happened to Vocational Counseling in Our Schools." The School Counselor. Volume 10, pp. 101-107.

ADJUSTMENT TO TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE--

AN ANALYSIS OF MAJOR APPROACHES

A Report

Submitted in

Partial Fulfillment of the Course Requirements

of Guidance 400

by

Walter Adams
William J. Britson
Adair Callison
John Cornette
Frank W. Downhour
Lester E. Foote
Garland V. Longhofer
Gerald Quinn
Walter L. Redmon
Roger A. Webb

July 1966

ADJUSTMENT TO TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE--AN ANALYSIS OF MAJOR APPROACHES

I. ADJUSTMENT TO TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE--AN OVERVIEW

Automation and technological change are basic to the development and growth of our modern society and economy. If we are to preserve a dynamic economy, with its accompanying optimum level of employment, adjustment to technological change must encompass programs and procedures for the solution of the problems caused by these changes. Because technological innovations are causing anxiety and worry for the employees affected, man's adjustment to these changes are of concern to the worker, sociologist, economist and government official. In many areas, a large portion of the unemployment problems are the result of technological changes adopted without sufficient foresight and consideration for the human consequences. Private and governmental agencies, while still maintaining the principles of our free society, must cooperate to develop the necessary economic safeguards against the financial and human loss that may result from technological change.

The present conditions seem to indicate that such efforts as aid to distressed areas, retraining programs, and relocation allowances when used to prevent loss do not solve the problems. The economic problems of automation seem to be inseparable from sociological, psychological or educational aspects; however, an attempt will be made in this presentation to limit the concern to the economic problems inherent in technological change.

In addition, this analysis of the approaches to solving the problems of technological change has been limited to those approaches judged to be of the greatest value to the school counselor as he works in the field of vocational guidance.

II. BASIC FACTS

GOVERNMENTAL PROGRAMS FOR ADJUSTMENT TO TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE

Changing technology will make increasing demands for highly trained people. To meet this need, the educational level of young people must be raised to increase their employability. President Johnson committed the administration to expand education and training opportunities for every citizen when he said, "We must provide full and free access to a first-rate education for all our youth, with later opportunity to develop their talents to the fullest measure of their ability. (29, p. XVIII)

The United States Office of Education and the Department of Labor offer a variety of educational programs to help young people prepare for, begin, or continue their participation in the work force. The chart Government Programs to Strengthen Human Resources graphically illustrates the concentration of education and financial assistance programs for youth aged 16 to 21.

Project Head Start

In the summer of 1965, Project Head Start was inaugurated to help pre-school children from culturally and socially deprived families develop the basic vocabulary and learning tools necessary for successful entry into kindergarten and the first grade. This program also provided the children a balanced lunch, medical, social, psychological and other services.

GOVERNMENT PROGRAMS TO STRENGTHEN HUMAN RESOURCES

	Age 3	5	17	19	21	65
Guidance and Counseling		NDEA amended 1963	NDEA 1958	NDEA amended '63		
			E-S Sch. Co-Prog. 1947	State Employment Service 1933		
Financial Assistance — Educational			Vo	cational Rehabilitation Act 1954, amended 1965		
			Job	Corps EDA '64		
			Vo. Ed.	Act '63		
				NDEA Title 8 1958		
			Manpower Training and Development Act 1962			
				NDEA Title II 1958, 1963		
				Nurse Training Act 1964		
				Health Professions Educational Assistance Act 1965		
Poverty	Head Start		Neighborhood Youth Corps EDA '64			
				Work Experience Programs EDA '64		
		Elem.-Sec. Ed.	Act 1965			
				Work Study Program EDA '64		
			Work Study Program Vo. Ed. '62			

Elementary and Secondary Education Act

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 authorizes more than one billion dollars annually in grants to school districts with heavy concentrations of children from low-income families. The Act will finance special programs to meet the needs of educationally-deprived children, and provide funds for books, maps, and other educational materials. Funds are also provided for supplementary educational centers and to improve the operation of State educational agencies. The Act also provides funds for supplementary programs in guidance, remedial instruction, health, psychological, and social work services when schools are not in session.

Vocational Education Act of 1963

This Act provides vocational education for persons who wish to learn, upgrade, or continue learning any trade, except the professions, in secondary and post-secondary schools, colleges and nonprofit agencies.

This legislation represents a major reorganization of vocational education to bring curricula more into line with current needs, de-emphasizing agricultural and home economics training and providing more comprehensive training in the complex skills needed today.

Several provisions of the Act will be especially helpful to disadvantaged youth.

The Area Vocational-Technical School construction program will provide vocational education for rural youth in areas too sparsely populated for the local school to offer this training.

The Work-Study Program gives financial assistance to students enrolled in full-time vocational education programs and in need of such assistance in order for them to stay in school and continue their education. A student may work up to 15 hours per week in a community agency and earn a maximum of $45 per month or $350 per year. During fiscal year 1966, nearly 85,000 students will be served by this program at a cost of $25 million.

A third part of the Act sets up Special, Experimental, Developmental, and Pilot Programs designed to meet the special vocational needs of youth.

Higher Education Act of 1965

Undergraduate and graduate college students training for teaching may obtain scholarships or low cost loans based on financial need. Work-study programs and graduate fellowships are also available.

Work-Study Programs - Title I, Pt. C

This Act provides grants for the part-time employment of college students from low-income families. Students may work on campus jobs for the University or secure off-campus employment conducted under agreement with public or private nonprofit organizations.

Nurse Training Act of 1964

This Act establishes a student loan fund from which nursing students enrolled in an accredited program may borrow up to $1000 each academic year, on reasonable terms. The Act also provides funds for establishing traineeships for the training of professional nurses.

The Health Profession Educational Assistance Act of 1963 (as amended in 1965)

This Act establishes student loan funds for needy students enrolled or accepted as full-time students pursuing a degree in a health profession. The Act also provides grants to schools offering health education programs for scholarships up to $2500 a year to needy students.

Mental Retardation Facilities and Community Health Center Construction Act of 1963

This provides grants to schools for traineeships in medicine and other specialized personnel needed to care for the mentally retarded.

Neighborhood Youth Corps, Economic Opportunity Act 1964: Title I, Pt. B

The purpose is to provide Work Training Programs for youths 16 through 21 who need employment to enable them to remain in school or to return to school. (26, p. 1)

Provisions allow for financial assistance to provide full or part-time work experience and training for disadvantaged youth from low-income families. Enrollees are placed in jobs in hospitals, schools, libraries, courts, parks, playgrounds, etc. (26, p. 1)

In 1965 there were 1446 projects approved providing 278,000 jobs for enrollees. Fifteen hundred projects have been approved for 1966, and it is anticipated that 356,000 youths will participate. (27, pp. 101-104.)

Job Corps, Economic Opportunity Act 1964: Title I, Pt. A

The purpose is to provide basic education, skill training and

constructive work experience for out-of-school and unemployed youth ages 16 through 21. (26, p. 1)

Provisions have been made to establish resident centers for youth that would profit from training in a different environmental situation. Job Corps programs differ depending upon local objectives but generally focus on basic educational activities and conservation projects when located in rural centers and on basic education and vocational training when located in urban areas. (26, p. 1)

During January, 1966, after a year of actual operation there were 73 rural conservation centers, 8 urban centers for men and 6 urban centers for women. The 1965 enrollment was 10,241, and it is anticipated that the 1966 enrollment will be 30,000. (29, pp. 104-106)

Community Action Programs, Economic Opportunity Act, Title II-A

This program is a central part of the War on Poverty and is designed to stimulate and support over-all planning and action against poverty by local communities. (29, pp. 106-107)

Provision is made for development of projects and are usually confined to inner city slum areas and isolated rural areas where poverty is acute. Many of the projects focus on helping children and youth through action to help them become independent, productive adults by attending to their physical and psychological needs. (29, pp. 106-107)

In 1964, programs started with 16 demonstration projects located in major cities. A number of these worked with youth. There are presently projects operating in fifty of the largest cities as well as in smaller communities and in rural areas. Plans for 1966 include operation of community action programs in 900 urban and rural areas. (29, pp. 106-107)

Adult Basic Education Programs, Economic Opportunity Act, Title II, Pt. B

This program is for persons 18 years of age and older who are unable to read and write and, as a result, find it difficult to get or keep a job. (26, p. 2)

Provision is made to operate a basic educational program to improve the enrollee's ability to benefit from occupational training and hold a job. (26, p. 2)

It is anticipated that 75,000 adults will participate in basic education programs in the coming year. (28, p. 17)

Youth Opportunity Campaign

This is a nationwide program launched by the President in 1965 to stimulate cooperation in providing more summer jobs for high school, college and unemployed youth. (29, pp. 109-110)

Nearly a million letters were mailed to employers, governors, mayors, and educators to enlist their cooperation. Federal agencies were directed to find openings, and the Neighborhood Youth Corps were authorized to take on an additional 25,000 boys and girls for summer employment. (29, pp. 109-110)

A survey of the impact of the campaign indicated that about 540,000 youth were employed in summer jobs through response of 75,000 employers and job openings in Federal agencies. (29, pp. 109-110)

Youth Services of Public Employment Services

Youth Opportunity Centers. Youth Opportunity Centers (YOC) embody a new concept of employment service to youth. The basis is to help increase the employability of youth through counseling and job placement.

Referral is made to vocational training, work training programs and for medical and other services when needed. YOC's, along with local offices, operate a cooperative program with schools to help high school seniors make the transition from school to jobs.

There were 120 YOC's operating in large metropolitan areas by the end of 1965. By the end of 1966 it is anticipated that 200 YOC's will be operational in 139 areas containing half of the country's youth. (29, pp. 107-110)

Program for Selective Service Rejectees. Young men rejected because of educational deficiencies are interviewed in groups immediately after testing at the Armed Forces Examination Stations. Persons requesting assistance are interviewed by the Employment Service and the others are contacted by the Employment Service local offices and again offered counseling and referral services to both employment and job training opportunities. (29, pp. 107-110)

Vocational Rehabilitation Act. The Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1954 as amended in 1965 has made training and retraining available to handicapped persons capable of earning a living if given occupational training. Handicapped persons are defined as "those with chronic disorders or impairments which limit them in the pursuit of a gainful occupation." (29, p. 72)

The Vocational Rehabilitation Act aims to establish rehabilitation programs for both physically and mentally handicapped individuals. These services include: "medical help to reestablish or improve work skills; physical aids such as braces, trusses, artificial limbs, and hearing devices; vocational guidance and training; board and room and travel

allowance during rehabilitation; help in finding a job; tools and licenses; and help on the job. The act also provides for up to four years of graduate level training to students specializing in rehabilitation counseling." (26, p. 3) The programs are operated by the states with Federal financial aid. (This aid may run as high as 75 percent of the total expenditures.)

During the fiscal year 1965, 135,000 persons were rehabilitated (performing satisfactorily on the job or in the home) under Vocational Rehabilitation programs. An additional 3,000-4,000 rehabilitations occurred under special research or demonstration projects.

Seventy-five percent of those rehabilitated during 1965 had jobs in the competitive business world at the time their cases were closed. Fifteen percent had had such jobs prior to going through the program. The average weekly earnings of all rehabilitants increased from $7 before rehabilitation to $44 after. (29, p. 73)

One major criticism of the Act is that some states seem to be a little reluctant to initiate programs. "The rehabilitation rate per 100,000 population in fiscal 1965 for the country as a whole stood at 70, but it varied among states from a high of 218 in West Virginia to a low of 19 in California." (29, p. 73)

The Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA)

It has been generally agreed that one of the most effective major Governmental programs innovated to assist individuals in adjusting to technological change has been the Manpower Development and Training Act. This act is most commonly referred to as MDTA.

The MDTA, passed by Congress in 1962 and expanded by amendments in 1963 and 1965, was designed to play a significant role in the development of human resources and to attack many of the adverse economic conditions existing in our labor market today through education and training.

The philosophy of the Act is that even in periods of high employment, many employment opportunities remain unfilled because of a shortage of qualified personnel and that, if we can train people to fill these shortages, we can eliminate a portion of our unemployment. (27, p. 1) Some of the reasons for this economic incongruity lie in the trends toward automation, the relocation of industry, foreign competition, technological change, etc.

Under the Act, the Department of Labor is responsible for identifying job openings, selecting and counseling the trainees, and placing the trained worker on the job. The Office of Education of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is responsible for providing the occupational training the unemployed worker receives. (4, p. 1)

Basically, the Act provides programs in which training and basic literacy instruction is given to the unemployed or underemployed sixteen years of age or older. The trainee must exhibit evidence that he is now unemployed and is unlikely to be able in the future to gain full-time employment without training.

Some of the programs offered under MDTA are drafting, auto mechanics, auto body repair, cooking, practical nursing, bookkeeping, etc. The possible occupational programs are very broad; the Act provides for training in any area in which there is a felt need and qualified individuals are available for training.

"Between the passage of the law in 1962 and the end of 1965, enrollment had reached a cumulative total of 370,000, with 315,000 in institutional training and 55,000 in on-the-job training. About 30 percent have been trained for skilled occupations and another 30 percent for clerical, sales, and service jobs." (8, p. 99)

The Act has shown promise of becoming an increasingly effective weapon in the fight against unemployment and underemployment. The intent of the Act was not to remedy the nation's economic problem of unemployment singlehandedly. It is only a part of the many government and private programs aimed at retraining, relocating, educating, or mitigating hardships for the unemployed and their families. The return to full employment still rests on the proper balance of fiscal monetary policies and an active private economy to provide the new jobs needed each year. (27, p.2)

INDUSTRY'S ROLE IN HELPING INDIVIDUALS ADJUST TO TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE

Industry, like other segments of the American economy, is involved in the over-all problem of minimizing unemployment. One obvious reason for this is readily seen when one considers that purchasing power is reduced as unemployment levels increase, thus resulting in cutbacks of sales and profits. The big area of disagreement, then, is not that unemployment is essentially undesirable, but rather, how much unemployment created by technological change can be tolerated?

Traditionally, most of the thinkers aligned with management looked upon technological change as inevitable and desirable. Until recently, few of these persons were willing to commit themselves to the task of

really doing anything to help the displaced worker become employed. However, as shall be shown later, some corporations have done much in this area in recent years. Much more has been done by management to inform counselors and students about the requirements of industry. These include industry-sponsored institutes for counselors and others for students.

Industry is in a position to do much toward controlling the amount of unemployment existing at any given time. The following section describes a few of the approaches used by industry in dealing with the problem.

Industrial Approaches to Adjustment Problems

Some corporations have provided in-service education for workers who have lost jobs as a result of new technological changes. Part of the training is intended to train them to operate the machines which displaced them, while part of it is intended to train mechanics who will keep the machines going. Many displaced workers, however, are never relocated into a different position within the same company, and will remain unemployed until they are hired by a different company, perhaps in a different job. This has caused Lebergott to observe, "It would take forty years to eliminate present unemployment through retraining, even if no more workers ever become unemployed." (14, p. 40) This does not suggest that retraining is not a worthy approach; it rather suggests that retraining is insufficient. Used as one approach among others, it appears to be a step in the right direction.

Another approach to meeting the problem is corporate sponsorship of training institutes for school counselors. These are designed to bring counselors up to date on the needs and requirements necessary to compete in our everchanging industrial society. General Electric, for example,

has sponsored annual institutes for school counselors the past several years.

In addition to institutes for school counselors, some corporations have sponsored institutes and workshops for students, most of whom are preparing to enter the labor market. One example is an institute conducted at the University of Missouri the summer of 1966 and sponsored by the Monsanto Corporation, in cooperation with other industries, and designed to identify and help prepare potential leaders for industry.

Many corporations have provided experts from various levels to visit with high school students on Career Days and at special assemblies. These are generally designed to help inform students about what is going on in industry today, of opportunities available now, and what is anticipated for the future.

Some corporations have assumed leadership roles in taking bold new approaches to the problems of technological change. Kaiser steel corporation has cooperated with the union in a joint undertaking described in the next section of this report. Basically, the Kaiser plan provides long-term assurance against job loss and subsequent loss of income, by guaranteeing an income for a period of time, even if the employee does nothing during that time. IBM Corporation granted $5 million to Harvard University to explor all areas of unemployment problems in America. Armour Meat Packing Company's Automation Fund, discussed, was developed by that industry to operate three areas or approaches to the unemployment problem. They include transfer to other Armour plants, retraining, and shifting to another position in the plant. Many companies have experimented

with early retirement plans in order to reduce the workforce and minimize unemployment without any income.

Within the last several years the adjustment problems to technological change have been recognized as not just a company or union problem. With the assistance of several Federal programs, most communities are being organized to ease the human problems that automation has created. Under the leadership of agencies of the federal government, the business organizations, unions, and local governmental and social agencies are cooperating in an expanded program for placement and adult education. Counseling services, both by the social agencies and other local agencies are also important for easing the very real problems that automation causes.

Industrial and business leaders have come a long way towards recognizing their responsibilities to employees whose jobs are to be changed or terminated because of technological advances. It is likely that even more significant gains will be made in the future, as more and more key people learn more about the problems and how to deal with them more effectively.

LABOR'S VIEW OF AUTOMATION

Labor has not always been in agreement as to the effects of automation. George Meany, President of the AFL-CIO, is quoted as saying, "Automation is a real curse to society; it could bring us to a national catastrophe." (9, p. 1) On the other hand, David McDonald of the United States Steel Workers has said, "To oppose automation is to oppose progress and this I shall never do." (9, p. 1)

Much of the controversy over technological change contains both tremendous potential and serious problems. Most union leaders seem to hold to the view that since organized labor cannot stop the snowballing of automation it must make the best of it. At any rate, organized labor is adjusting to meet the changing times.

For the first ten years after World War II, the demands of unions in collective bargaining were centered primarily on higher wages, supplemented at times by higher fringe benefits; pensions, life insurance, health and welfare plans, etc. Within the past five or six years the emphasis has changed. Unions are now devoting more attention to providing protection for those union members who are already unemployed or for those who might become unemployed in the future. Job protection and employment security have become much more important to union members. (5)

Although unions have often opposed automation while industry has insisted that automation must take place, both groups have, through cooperative labor-management relations, been able to get together on several occasions to establish programs that have worked to the mutual satisfaction of both groups. Three of the major plans that have been developed since 1959 will be briefly mentioned here:

Technological Adjustment Plan

Included in this plan between two unions and Armour and Company is a section pertaining to automation. This involves establishing a fund for training employees to perform new and changed jobs--within the company. It also established a committee of nine members from management and the unions to administer the fund and to study problems resulting from modernization programs.

The fund was set at $500,000 and was established by the company by contributions of one cent for each hundredweight of total shipped tonnage. The major portion of this fund was to be used to retrain qualified workers who lost their jobs through company changeovers to automation, and to permit them to take new and different jobs. (12, pp. 253-257)

Mechanization and Modernization Plan

This plan was signed by the employers and the Pacific Coast Longshoremen's Union. The employers agreed to set aside a sum each year, of $1.5 million to begin with and to then increase this to $5 million. The purpose of the fund was to provide full-time pay each week for longshoremen at work who would have their hours cut through the use of automated equipment. It also was to provide a fund for early retirement. In return, the union agreed to permit introduction of labor-saving devices and substantial modification of work practices in loading and unloading vessels. (12, pp. 264-270)

Long Range Sharing Plan

In 1959, the Kaiser Steel Corporation established a committee called the "Long Range Committee." This committee, early in 1963, worked out the "Long Range Sharing Plan" which was designed, to some extent, as a substitute for periodic collective bargaining to divide the profits between labor and management. Under this plan, workers are to receive approximately one-third of the savings in materials and one-third the savings resulting from increased labor output. There are also guarantees

against reductions in income or employment as a result of technological change. (12, pp. 270-275)

These types of programs seem to be an indication that unions are now devoting more attention to providing protection for those union members who are already unemployed or for those who might become unemployed in the future. Job protection and employment security against technological change have become much more important to the union member. There will probably be an increase in this type of collective bargaining in the future.

Apprenticeship Programs

Labor unions have played an important part in obtaining occupational competence. Apprenticeship involves a formal agreement covering a definite period of time which binds the employer to provide training in return for the work of the apprentice. Most apprenticeships run between two and four years, but some last as long as eight years. (30, p. 104)

The Bureau of Apprenticeship, an agency of the United States Department of Labor, listed some 300 apprenticeable skilled and technical occupations in January of 1966. (30, p. 104) It attempts to register and keep track of all programs, but it is believed that the registered programs represent only about half of all programs. (30, p. 104) New registered programs have fallen sharply over the past ten years, reflecting the long-term decline in this mode of training. In 1950, registrations totaled 230,823 apprentices; in January, 1963, there were only 158,616 registered. (30, p. 104)

It would seem that formal apprenticeship programs will provide but a small proportion of the total skilled manpower needed during the

upcoming decade. The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that an average of 520,000 skilled workers must be added to the labor force annually through 1970. Yet, in 1960 the total number of apprenticeship completions was less than 60,000. (30, p. 104) It appears that only one in ten skilled workers will have any contact with apprenticeship programs in learning a skilled trade. The vast majority of skilled manpower must obtain its occupational preparation either on the job or in school.

One writer, Mary Conway Kohler, blames labor unions for much of this problem. "I need not tell you the present attitude of unions. Apprentice training can begin at eighteen. But in practice, most apprentices start much later. The average age is twenty-four. And nepotism that prevails in unions precludes any significant number of youth from getting their training through their apprenticeship. Here again most youthful workers are excluded." (13, p. 3)

The President's Committee on Youth Employment has recommended that since the continued strength and security of our country depends on a continuing supply of young men and women capable of building, operating, and repairing the complex equipment of a technological age, "The government should require contractors for government work to train apprentices in numbers that are in proportion to the dollar value of the contract. The total should be determined by estimates of future needs made by the National Council on Apprenticeship Standards." (22, p. 16) This kind of program would take much of the control of apprenticeship programs out of the hands of organized labor.

III. IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

Because of the adjustment problems which will be encountered by today's youth as they move from a school setting out into the job market there are several implications which seem to be of special importance to persons concerned with vocational guidance. While these factors are of far-ranging impact and will affect society on all levels, an attempt has been made to specify the area where the implications will occur with the greatest impact.

The Individual and Vocational Decision-Making

1. Probably at no time in the history of man has the process of human choice been confounded by an awareness of so many variables. The needs of students and the complex demands of our society require improved understanding, skill and knowledge of resources in professional guidance workers to bridge the widening gap.

2. A present indicator of future employment and economic success appears to relate to a person's educational and occupational plans and decisions. Young people who can acquire education and skills will have wider opportunities for vocational choice, better wages and steadier employment. A top priority in education and guidance should be in helping students understand their own abilities and aspirations as they relate to occupational

opportunities and to acquire the appropriate education and training to enable them to realize their goals.

3. The economic law of supply and demand will continue to determine the types and numbers of entry jobs available to young people. Persons entering the labor market must be prepared for a wide variety of jobs, some of which may not have been in existence at the time of preparation.

4. A majority of (if not all of) the various approaches to the problems of technological change which were surveyed in this paper seem to have ignored the special problems of women in today's world as they face the choice between being either a homemaker or an employee, or try to combine the two.

5. The economic implications and ramifications inherent in making vocational choices will assume an even greater importance than before.

6. Among those who will be most adversely affected by changing technology will be that group who have failed to recognize the necessity for adequate preparation to enter into today's technological world.

7. Technological change is a part of our world. Because of the rapidity with which it alters a vocational field, persons must be able to change from their chosen field to another, and to accept these sudden changes as a part of living with modern technology.

Implications for Local Programs

1. The increase in the variety of programs in the past few years as various segments of society attempts to deal with the adjustment problem seems to indicate that an even wider array of approaches will evolve as the most successful are sought. If the young people of a community are to be adequately served, the counselors must be cognizant of the varying approaches, as outlined in this paper, and their suitability to the local situation.

2. Counselors must be sensitive to changes in industrial technology and the possible effects upon the local and national job situations.

Implications for State Programs

1. Modern technological change will affect even more segments of American life than it has already. Computers and other results of technical-scientific innovation will enter into all areas of living, including the home and education. The State, and specifically, the Vocational Guidance sections of the State Departments of Education must be ready to offer assistance, encouragement, and leadership to the counselors and others responsible for assisting persons to make the necessary plans and adjustments.

IV. RECOMMENDATIONS

In this concluding section, various recommendations will be listed as possible methods of meeting the problems of technological change with its afore-mentioned implications. These recommendations are oriented to the school counselor as he seeks new solutions to the problems of vocational satisfaction and security for the young people with whom he works.

1. Counselors, through membership in their professional organizations, attendance at professional meetings, and by other means at their disposal, must keep abreast of the various programs available for meeting the economic problems accompanying technological displacement.

2. The counselor must prepare his students to expect to change their occupation during their years of employment. Furthermore, he must, through an awareness of the human values and conflicts involved, prepare them to face the reality of a technological world in which change will be a fact of life.

3. Through counseling and an exposure to the factors involved in vocational choice (economic, geographic, stability, future, etc), he should encourage in his counselees an awareness of the importance of adequate preparation for a variety of entry jobs, some of which may not have been in existence at the time the student was preparing for entry into the labor market.

4. Counselors should assist school girls to face, and begin to work through, the possible conflicts and tensions they may encounter as they make their decisions regarding entry into the job market.

5. The counselor must be prepared to devote extra time and effort, through all the means at his disposal, to alert those students who, because of lack of motivation or ability or concern with the future, are most apt to be adversely affected, and least able to cope with the adjustment problem.

6. Because the technological changes will enter into all areas of living, including the home and education, the counselor has an obligation to his students, and himself, to prepare to function in a world vastly different from that into which they were born.

7. Because a knowledge and understanding of the economic impact of technology is vital to the counselor's ability to assist his students, it would seem that an inclusion of the relationship between economics and vocational choice might well be a part of the counselor's basic preparation.

8. As an accompaniment to the above, consideration should be given to the exposure of more students during their formative years to the basic concepts of economics in a modern world.

9. The counselor should be concerned with the adequacy with which his school's curriculum (both academic and vocational) is relevant to the future working and living of the student.

10. The policy of Government and industry sponsorship of institutes for vocational counselors should be expanded and encouraged.

11. Counselors should enter into discussions with local business and labor leaders to learn what skills would be most beneficial to students entering into and advancing within a selected industry.

12. The recent interest shown by business in explaining their problems and needs to counselors by means of seminars, institutes and counselor on-the-job work experience is laudable, and the expansion of it is worthy of serious consideration.

13. The counselor's position that a job is a means for an individual to express himself through work should be conveyed to industry in a meaningful manner.

14. A continuing communication between the school and the business-labor community should be maintained.

15. The possibility of the expansion of vocational counseling downward into the elementary school level should be given encouragement and support. The emphasis on such an approach should be on exposure of the elementary child to concepts such as the dignity of work and the opportunities available rather than to such limiting concepts as selection of a vocation.

16. Vocational counseling and guidance should adopt a longitudinal approach, starting in the elementary school, through the cooperative efforts of the counselor and the teacher.

17. Upward extensions of vocational-technical education, through such means as the community junior college and/or technical school, should be considered;and the vocational counselor should become cognizant of their organization and purposes.

18. Consideration must be given to expansion of vocational counseling and guidance services into adult education programs.

19. State Departments of Education should take more of a leadership role in the development of Vocational Guidance Programs within

their states. This can be done by conducting in-service education through workshops, training programs and institutes for counselors and vocational educators.

20. State Departments of Education should take action to improve cooperative working relationships with other divisions within their Department, State Employment Services and other state and local agencies aiding youth.

21. Expanded consultant services need to be provided to help local schools develop guidance programs, work through problems, conduct vocational surveys, plan and conduct research, etc.

22. State Departments should plan and develop publications and informational resources to help counselors keep abreast of developments in guidance and provide students with updated vocational information.

23. State Departments of Education and Counselor Education Institutions should cooperate more in the planning for the preparation and supervision of counselors during training and by consultative services later.

V. SUMMARY

In summary, automation and technological change are essential for a productive economy. The results which yield tremendous economic benefits oftentimes cause perplexing and sometimes tragic sociological, educational problems for those workers and their families who lose their jobs to a machine. Full cooperation and communication must be attained among all agencies concerned with finding a solution to the human problems evolving from automation in order for the beneficial effects of automation to be enjoyed by all members of society.

Industry is becoming involved in the over-all problem of unemployment in order to help maintain a balance in the American economy -- not only from the humanitarian point of view, but also due to the fact that increased unemployment reduces purchasing power resulting in cutbacks in sales and profits. Although labor has been quite reluctant to accept automation as inevitable, recently there have been many cooperative efforts by labor and industry to meet the problems of technological change.

The government has initiated several programs to help persons entering the world of work and has stimulated industry and labor to expand their attempts to help the unemployment created by automation.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Borow, Henry (ed.). Man in a World-at Work. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964.

2. Campbell, William G. Form and Style in Thesis Writing. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1954.

3. The Christian Century, March 3, 1965.

4. Chronicle Guidance Publications. The 1963 Amendments of the Manpower Development and Training Act. Morovia, New York, September, 1965.

5. Clague, Ewan. "Automation--The Economic Perspective." A Speech before the Conference on Automation and Social Change. Toronto, Canada, September 17, 1963.

6. Coleman, James S. Cooperative Research, Social Climates in High Schools. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1961, OE-33016.

7. Conant, James B. Slums and Suburbs. McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961.

8. Economic Report of the President. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, January 1966.

9. Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia. Automation. Philadelphia Reserve Bank of Philadelphia, Pa., 1964.

10. Greenberg, Leon. The Relationship of Automation Productivity, and Employment - Current Developments in the United States. U. S. Department of Labor, 1964.

11. Gross, Edward. Work and Society. Crowell Publishing Company.

12. International Brotherhood of Pulp, Sulphite and Paper Mill Workers. Automation--Economic Implications and Impact Upon Collective Bargaining. Second Edition, June 1964.

13. Kohler, Mary. Excluded Youth, Idle or Trained? Washington Center for Metropolitan Studies, 1962.

14. Lebergott, Stanley. Men Without Work: The Economics of Unemployment. Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.

15. Life, July 19, 1963, p. 48.

16. Midwest Regional Pilot Conference. New Approaches to Counseling Girls in the 1960's. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1966.

17. Miller, G. Dean and Edward O. Swanson (eds.). Automation, the Threat and the Promise. Twin City Vocational Guidance Association, 1964.

18. National Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress. Technology and the American Economy - Vol. I. U. S. Government Printing Office, February 1966.

19. Newsweek Magazine, June 25, 1965, p. 78.

20. Nosow, Sigmund and William P. Form (eds.). Man, Work, and Society. Basic Books, Inc., 1962.

21. President's Advisory Committee on Labor-Management Policy. Automation. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1962.

22. President's Committee on Youth Employment. Reports of Subcommittees of the President's Committee on Youth Employment. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, June 1963.

23. Riesman, David, et al. The Lonely Crowd. Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1954.

24. Super, Donald E. The Psychology of Careers. Harper & Brothers, 1957.

25. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Commitment to Youth. OE-25039, 1964.

26. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. A Counselor's Guide to Federal Aid Programs. Reprint from Occupational Outlook Quarterly. U. S. Government Printing Office, 1966.

27. U. S. Department of Labor. Education and Training, Key to Development of Human Resources. U. S. Government Printing Office, April 1964.

28. U. S. Department of Labor. Manpower Report of the President. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1963.

29. U. S. Department of Labor. Manpower Report of the President, Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1966.

30. Venn, Grant. Man, Education and Work. American Council on Education, 1964.

31. Wrenn, Gilbert C. The Counselor in a Changing World. American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1962.

Training Institute for Vocational Guidance

and Counseling Personnel

July 15, 1966

A COOPERATIVE APPROACH TO YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

Group 4

Jim Athen-chairman
John R. Banning
Don Bloss
Lyle S. Evenson
Richard Galusha
Dennis E. Hanley
Walter Horvatich
Janet Land-secretary
Bill Rosser
Dave Yahnig

A COOPERATIVE APPROACH TO YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

Introduction

Recent national and international events have made it abundantly clear that the successful operation and continued growth of our democratic society is directly dependent upon the education and preparation for employment of its citizenry. Equally obvious is the fact that as a democratic society grows in complexity the need for an educated and employed citizenry increases rapidly. A democratic society must then be concerned with the education and preparation for employment for all.

The responsibilities of all persons involved in the preparation of youth in a democratic society are of such a nature that no individual, institution, government agency, business community, or association can afford to conceive of its function, without being at this point of societal need.

A cooperative effort can best serve a democratic society by recognizing and meeting the education and employment needs of the individuals who are members of that society. Among such individuals, the educational and employment needs of youth are of prime concern. Included in these needs of youth are: (1) the need to receive the benefits

of an educational program uniquely appropriate to their interests and abilities which prepares them for the world of work; and (2) the need to make wisely those decisions which represent both the rights and responsibilities of a democratic citizenry--decisions which reflect the philosophy that every individual has maximal freedom to lead his own life without interference or dictation from external sources; and that, by doing so wisely, society will reap maximal benefits.

It is recognition of these joint responsibilities -- (1) responsibilities to our democratic society, and (2) responsibilities to each individual in that society -- that leads to a recognition of guidance as being an integral part of a cooperative effort in assisting youth. The acquisition of knowledge about the world around him must be accomplished by the acquisition of knowledge about self if knowledge and skills are to have potential for truly positive application. Freedom to choose must be accompanied by assistance in the decision making process if it leads to wise decisions regarding employment. It is recognition of the potential benefits and the potential dangers in a cooperative approach to youth employment in a democracy which leads to the conclusion that guidance must be considered an integral part of and play a strong role in any cooperative approach to youth employment.

The Problem

A continuing concern has been given to the employment needs of youth. It has been recognized that youth are faced with many problems as they make the transition into the world of work. Many of these problems can be attributed to the lack of cooperative effort by the trade unions, business community, government agencies, and school as each attempts to assist youth.

Whereas, the labor market of the United States appears to be less than a perfect institution; and whereas, the cooperation among such groups as the trade unions, business community, government agencies, and school has not been to the extent that was necessary to meet the needs of all youth as they attempt to enter the labor market; it is therefore the purpose of this paper to present a cooperative approach attempting to involve all persons, associations and agencies who are either, directly or indirectly concerned with assisting youth to gain an awareness and insight into the training and employment opportunities, which will in turn enable each youth to make sound decisions in regard to his preparation and transition into the world of work.

It appears essential that certain terms used in presenting the paper be defined at this time if mutual understanding and clarity is to be achieved. The definitions of terms are as follows:

1. labor market - that pool of skills and talents utilized in producing goods and services.
2. world of work - those areas of effort in which man is employed for intrinsic and/or extrinsic compensation. In this respect, the reader wishes to refer to recognized lists of occupational groups.
3. youth - those individuals in the formative years who are or should be preparing to make the transition into the world of work.
4. role of the counselor -

The counselor's role in vocational guidance of "Johnny Low" as well as all other youth is best described by his changing, broader attitude toward the full range of youth in school, a fuller awareness of the changing world of work, a greater knowledge of occupational information, vocational training, and job opportunities which will attract vocational education as well as college bound youth.

Vocational guidance is not measurement, arbitrary classification, and distribution. Effective vocational guidance must take account of the values and goals of the individual--his right and his responsibility for self-decision. This is best accomplished by helping the individual to understand more accurately both himself and the world of work. Vocational guidance teamed with education and specific vocational training enables each youth to explore, to try out, and to test himself in the specific educational and job requirements of occupations in which he may be interested and for which he may be qualified.

> For Johnny and for Mary this means earlier identification of needs, specific strengths, disabilities which need remediation, attentiveness to interests, concern for underachievement, and those environmental factors which may deter or enhance his progress. Such guidance within . . . will increasingly enable each youth to explore all the options which may be open to him consistent with his capacities no matter what they are or in what degree they exist.
>
> This dynamic and ongoing process of vocational guidance is based on the assumption that an individual actually reaches his ultimate vocational choice, not in any single moment in time, but through a series of try-out experiences and resultant decisions over a period of years. (2)

Basic Facts

Several factors contribute to and are evidence of the problems youth face as they make the transition into the world of work. The following factors supported by findings are presented to verify and give an insight into the problems.

1. Unemployment rate of youth
   A. Currently, more than three-fourths million youth in the age group 16 - 21 are out of school and unemployed. If the present rate of youth unemployment continues, by 1970 the figure for unemployed youth, out-of-school and on the streets, could be doubled. The unemployment rate for youth now is about seventeen percent, was half again as high as for graduates. Among both graduates and

dropouts, joblessness is inversely related to age, and for each group the graduates have lower rates of unemployment. (15)

B. About one in six of all the unemployed who are out of school are 16 to 21 years old, although this age group makes up only about one in fourteen of the nation's labor force. (9)

C. If our current rate of unemployment persists, as the youth population increases, by 1970, the number of unemployed youth will be close to one and a half million. (9)

2. Underemployment

"There are millions employed in occupations and skills that do not fully utilize their capabilities." (14)

3. Low skill level of youth

A. The congress finds that . . . even in periods of high employment many employment opportunities remain unfilled because of shortage of qualified personnel. (5)

B. Whatever the current employment situation may be, young people who are just starting to earn a living are likely to have more difficulty than their elders. Employers prefer to hire people who already have acquired work discipline. More important, however, young

people in this age group frequently cannot offer a specific skill on the job market or they have not stayed in school long enough to acquire an acceptable amount of basic education. (13)

C. "There has been an acceleration in recent years of the relative decline in the number of unskilled and semiskilled jobs which usually provide first employment opportunities for new young workers. (5) Wolfbein states that "whether it be the unskilled or semi-skilled, the young school drop-out, or older man who also has a high rate of long term unemployment, one of the great common denominators which ties them all together is lack of skill. (18)

D. Eight and six tenths percent of business and industry in a large midwestern city have not, since September 1963, engaged in education classes in cooperation with the public schools. Sixty-one and four-tenths percent have not engaged in education classes which were not

in cooperation with the public school. Only forty-three and four-tenths percent have an interest in participation with a work experience program for high school seniors.

Eighty-five and five-tenths percent conduct on-the-job training programs.

E. "the days of opportunity for the untrained, unskilled workers are past. We have been making great strides in industrial development, to provide jobs for our young people right here in Iowa. It would be the ultimate irony if we attained the industrial flowering of our valley that we have so long hoped for--only to find that we have failed to provide our own sons and daughters with the modern-day skills, through regular high school or vocational training, to handle the jobs available." (4)

4. Discrimination

A. "During post war recessions, unemployment rose about the same relative amount among both white and nonwhite workers from the prerecession level to the trough. During the recovery periods, however, there appears to have been a definite lag in the recovery of unemployment rates among nonwhites . . . . For nonwhite workers, the recovery not only came later, it also was less vigorous . . . although the nonwhite worker may not be the first laid off, it appears that once he loses his job, he is less likely to be recalled or to find another." (6)

B. Contributing factors in the high unemployment rates of nonwhites are employment discrimination, poor education, and their concentration in occupations with unsteady employment. (16)

C. Unemployment tends to be of longer duration as workers advance in years. Among the total unemployed, some three out of ten had been seeking work fifteen weeks or longer." (5)

D. Nonwhite workers, who constitute eleven percent of our labor force, twenty percent of our unemployed, and nearly twenty-five percent of our long-term unemployed, suffer the double disadvantage of lower educational attainment and lingering discrimination. (14, pp. 15-16)

E. Unemployment among Negro youth is double that of white boys and girls. (9)

5. Lack of motivation

A. An intense desire for self improvement can often overcome severe environmental handicaps. On the other hand, weakly motivated people can fail to take advantage of the most favorable opportunities. Nothing we say here, and no recommendations we address to public or private institutions can relieve individuals of the responsibilities for their lives."

B. The motivation of boys and girls, which undergirds ambitions and achievement at maximum levels of capability derive from a complex of values. These values have their roots in the home, the church, the schools, the community, and peer groups. All of these agencies and groups must become involved in any attempt to upgrade the aspirational level of those boys and girls who have adopted goals below their potential--goals which all too often precede low productivity and socially unacceptable patterns of living. (9)

C. . . . it became clear that many of the dropouts for "bad" reasons came from fractured homes characterized by absent or weak male figures, domineering women, and little family cohesion. (7)

6. Lack of communication

It is generally recognized by education that there should be vocational classes in specific occupational skills in the schools, yet "seven and one-tenth percent (of labor unions in a large midwestern city) recommend high school courses for a broad basic knowledge of business and industry rather than courses for the specific occupational skills."

7. Lack of mobility

> ". . . among the group who anticipated recall . . . eighty percent indicated they would definitely accept another job in their home area. In marked contrast, if the job were in another part of the country, only twenty-six percent would definitely take it." (5)

8. Lack of adequate counseling

   A. In the many school systems where counseling is available chiefly or exclusively in the high schools, dropouts often leave school without having received any counseling at all. (14)

   B. "National testing, counseling, and guidance needs are only beginning to be met. The number of dropouts is still far too high, the number of disadvantaged young people who need such services is still very large, and many pupils in elementary and secondary schools are not yet adequately served. (14)

   C. Counselors with vision, knowledge, and understanding are important keys in developing the cooperative efforts necessary to the solution of these problems. Guidance and counseling of youth to be most effective is a cooperative effort directly involving school counselors, employment counselors, teachers, parents and many

relevant community agencies, as well as the youth themselves. (9)

D. Adequate guidance and counseling programs, with an emphasis on motivations, can play an important role in preventing the situation we face today. Many jobs remain unfilled because of lack of trained persons, while at the same time there are many unemployed who are potentially capable of filling these jobs had they been given the needed vocational counseling and guidance at an earlier time. (9)

E. Tradition in American public education has tended to restrict the guidance services of schools to those who are still continuing an unbroken full time attendance from year to year and to neglect all further service to those youth who have dropped out of school. (11)

9. Numerically small numbers in the middle-age group, creating an imbalance in labor market

The number of male workers in the middle-age group actually dropped from 1960-1965. Within this age group men aged 35-44 are expected to register a substantial decline, over the next five years--averaging 115,000 per year because of low birth rates of early 1930's. Since this age group is normally an important

source of manpower for middle management and other highly responsible and skilled jobs, the reduction in their number could result in a shortage of key personnel. (14)

10. Continually restructuring labor market

A. "One of the three elements of a developmental program restructuring the labor market is the drastic upgrading of the manpower supply, through improved basic education, technical training and retraining, to make it more adaptable to present day forecasts and foreseeable requirements, a second element is a broad improvement of the physical and cultural amenities for the highly mobile and choosy types of personnel . . .

The third element, possibly the most crucial, is the creation of a regional intermediary mechanism for channeling to potential entrepreneurs three things:

(1) information on the new technical possibilities being opened up by massive research efforts . . .

(2) information on the specific demands for new products by government agencies and other buyers.

(3) adequate venture capital to share the risks of innovation." (5)

B. "The one person, who in the past was such a God-send of being one fixed person for one fixed task in life, is going to be a public liability in the future because the change is going to be so rapid." (18)

C. "Automation has had the greatest negative impact on workers in the unskilled and semi-skilled categories." (19)

11. There is a reluctance of training programs to accept students.

Even in the largest cities, less than one-fifth of the high schools are enrolled in vocational education programs, although two-thirds of all high school graduates will not complete college training.

12. There is a reluctance of industry, unions and government agencies to accept training programs.

A. Eighty-nine and one-tenths percent of the unions stated that since 1963 they have not participated in education classes in cooperation by/with the public school and eighty-five percent have not cooperated or participated in classes which were sponsored by other than the public school. (2)

B. Since 1963 eighty-six and seven-tenths percent of business and indusry (in a large Midwestern

city) have not engaged in education classes in cooperation with the public schools. Since 1963, sixty-one and four-tenths percent of business and industry have not engaged in education classes which were not in cooperation with the public schools.

13. There is a difference in public attitudes, level of education, socioeconomic background and training. In general, public school attempts to give vocational training always tend to be strong in organization of administration. They are likely to be indefinite and uncertain as to the primary aim of work. In training in industry aims of work are usually definite and direct. Attention is given to adapting the work to the needs. While teaching methods may suffer in many ways when compared with those in the public schools they are at least applied to practical situations in the occupations taught. (11)

14. Selective service and armed forces do not provide for a liaison of information and referrals of persons not qualified for service.
One-third of all young men in the nation turning eighteen would be found to be unqualified if they were to be examined for induction into the armed forces. Of these, about one-half would be rejected for medical reasons. The remainder would fail through inability to qualify on the mental test. (10)

15. Business implies lack of counseling and cooperation

"Not only do employers give general support to guidance services, but frequently urge that services be improved and expanded. Furthermore, personnel executives stress the importance of increased cooperation and mutual understanding between themselves and those responsible for guidance and counseling." (3)

16. There is a lack of communication and understanding of objectives between and within organizations.

It is generally recognized that most high schools recommend two years of vocational courses be offered so that the young people are able to make an easier transition into the world of work, yet in a large Midwestern city seventy-one and two-tenths percent of the unions recommend high schools offer courses for a broad basic knowledge of business and industry rather than courses for specific occupational skills found in vocational courses. (8)

17. There is a duplication of structure and efforts of agencies.

It is clear that already we have available most of the parts for an effective labor market machine . . . . Nonetheless, even if we enlarge the scope of various employment-stabilizing, unemployment-counteracting, and growth stimulating programs

in existence, for effective functioning it is essential not only to enlarge them, but even more to coordinate them. (5)

18. Financial barriers discourage support of cooperative activities.

Governmental agencies and independent businesses are in many cases conducting training programs independently. There are indications of overlapping of effort and financial commitment in some training areas.

Implications for Vocational Counseling

A cooperative approach to assist youth in gaining an awareness and insight into training and employment opportunities which will enable them to make sound decisions in regard to their preparation for and transition into the world of work will have certain implications for guidance personnel.

1. There will be a need to extend guidance service relationships outside the educational institution.
   A. For vocational decision-making first hand exposure of counselors and students to outside agencies which will enable them to gain an awareness and understanding of such agencies.

B. For local programs (1) a need to provide for a more complete, efficient service resulting in less duplication of effort. (2) a need to involve and coordinate all resource personnel.

C. For state programs, a need for continuing evaluation of counselor preparation programs, of all state agencies, and professional organizations in order to move intelligently toward cooperative effort. It follows that programs need to be developed which make use of the results of evaluation that will support and improve cooperative efforts.

2. There will be a need to encourage guidance counselors to exert a greater influence on those persons responsible for the allocation of the counselor's resources.

   A. For vocational decision-making a need for more flexibility of movement to become a better informed counselor.

   B. For local programs, a need for increased acceptance of the counselors role in the community.

   C. For state programs a need for state agencies to provide standards.

3. There will be a need for self improvement among counselors.

A. For vocational decision-making, a need for a continuous updating of knowledge, methods and procedures.

B. For local programs, a need to implement in-service training among all involved in the guidance of youth.

C. For state programs, a need to provide assistance to local in-service programs with sound consultant services.

4. There will be a need for research and for development of tools used in vocational guidance.
A need for research to provide information which will be used in itself as well as for the development of tools. It follows that this information in itself and the development of vocational guidance tools will be applicable in vocational decision-making, local and state programs.

Summary and Conclusions

"Progress in education will depend heavily on progress in the educational institutions. The "outside" community, public and private, must supply financial and moral support. Some leadership, and much cooperation. But much of the initiative in developing programs for improvement, and most of the effort to carry them out, will have to come from professional people in education, administration, teachers, and researchers."
"More use should be made of the capacities of business for

training workers and developing more effective methods in education and training. Business should systematically make an effort to foresee and prepare for, changes in their labor requirements." "In the improvement of vocational education businesses have a necessary part to play. They are a source of information about current and prospective job requirements and about which aspects of worker preparation are best done in school or on the job. The cooperation of business is indespensible to programs for work experience during the education period, and job placement afterwards.

In many cases, business can help to make up-to-date equipment and experts available to the school." (1)

It would be advantageous to enlist the aid of local business and labor organizations to constitute an advisory board on a continuing basis. Its purpose being to provide direction in curriculum planning, to show labor needs, provide for insights into personnel qualification of prospective employees, and to serve as a liaison between the school and local groups.

The counselor would, as part of his regular duties, make frequent contacts with personnel departments of business and industry to create a sound working relationship. This relationship will make known to employers the skills provided by the schools and conversely, industry's requirements can be made known to students.

Labor organizations are concerned with the quality of people who are entering the apprentice programs. In some of the skilled areas, the trades being an example, an effort is being made to enlist people who have the capacity and interest to pursue a comprehensive apprentice program to its conclusion. It is imperative that counselors make known to these labor organizations the concern that the schools have for acquainting the qualified students with these training progr ms. A joint effort will serve to help the student to avail himself to the better job opportunities. It will also enhance the apprentice program by making competent students available.

Further, the counselor as a part of the cooperative effort would make available to employers, certain information about the student that would be beneficial to a prospective employer. Potential employers would be encouraged to avail themselves to this information. They would be further encouraged to evaluate these students who have been hired. This evaluation would be made available to the counselor and the school. It would be used in an effort to upgrade the training program and would serve to help the counselor in his guidance efforts to serve youth.

Suggestions

Due to the foregoing observations it is urged, by the writers, that the following suggestions be considered for initiating and carrying out a cooperative effort toward

meeting the needs of youth as they prepare to make the transition into a world of work.

1. Extension of guidance service
   - A. Involve all parents and guardians
   - B. Actively participate in service club activities
   - C. Conduct military night
   - D. Provide student visitation to training programs
   - E. Provide visitation of industry
   - F. Form and utilize advisory committee
   - G. Utilization of all resources available
     - (1) consultants representing
     - (2) develop a directory of resource persons and agencies who qualify as referral services
     - (3) provide for visitation by representatives of trade and technical schools, industry and government agencies
   - H. Budget and plan for extensions of services
   - I. Initiate and frequently utilize communication media.
   - J. Provide for the development of an entry occupation handbook
   - K. Conduct scheduled guidance activities that have specific objectives
   - L. Actively participate in those legislative activities aimed at improving employment and training opportunities for youth

2. Exert greater influence on use of guidance resources
   A. Gather and present to policy-making individuals evidence of the effectiveness of greater mobility of a counselor as he carries out his responsibilities. It may be best to initiate and expand activity on an experimental basis during the regular school day or aside from the regular school day.
   B. The counselor should make known to the various civic and community organizations his availability to give further knowledge of guidance and its implications. Civic groups, professional associations, and industrial groups often welcome a counselor directed program.
   C. Acquire, become knowledgable, and participation in the development of standards for all agencies involved with guidance.
3. Self improvement
   A. Become an active member in those organizations involving guidance.
   B. Become knowledgable regarding all environmental factors affecting youth as he attends to school and enters employment.
   C. The counselor should avail himself of the facilities offered by the counselor training institutions in his area. It would be

advantageous to participate in up dated courses or workshops that add to his competencies.

4. Research and tool

A. Cooperate with all agencies in conducting recording and dessiminating findings of research, pertinent to guidance of youth.

B. Develop resources such as:

(1) Recommendations for curricular change

(2) Entry Occupations Handbook

(3) Directory of training programs

(4) Directory of governmental agencies

(5) Manual of referral sources

(6) Directory of sources of financial aid

(7) Directory of military information

(8) Blueprint of labor and employment trends

(9) Prediction tables for courses, training and jobs

(10) Development of profiles for job training

REFERENCES

1. Committee on Economic Development. September 1965, p.26.

2. Dugan, Willis E. The School Counselor's Role in Vocational Guidance. Chronicle Guidance Publications, Inc. December 1964.

3. Endicott, Frank S. Counselors-Trainers Report to the Profession. Northwestern University. Chapter 9.

4. Iowa State Department of Public Instruction. Dropout Study. June 30, 1964.

5. Lebergott, Stanley. Men Without Work: The Economics of Work. Englewood Cliffs. Prentice Hall. 1964.

6. Lebergott, Stanley. Minority Discrimination. p. 119.

7. Occupational Outlook Quarterly. A Psychologist Looks at Motivational Problems in Training. Vol. 9, No. 3, September 1965.

8. Parrish, Edwin H. Education for Work Survey and Study Education for the World of Work. 1964.

9. Presidents Committee on Youth Employment. The Challenge of Jobless Youth. 1963, p. 2.

10. Presidents Task Force on Manpower Conservation. A Report on Young Men Found Unqualified for Military Service. January 1, 1964.

11. Prosser, Charles A. Vocational Education in a Democracy. American Technical Society. Chicago, Illinois.

12. U.S. Department of Labor. Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1964. U.S. Government Printing Office, June 1965.

13. U.S. Department of Labor. From School to Work. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1961.

14. U.S. Department of Labor. Manpower Report of the President. U.S. Government Printing Office, March 1966.

15. U.S. Department of Labor. Monthly Labor Review. June 1965, p. 638.

16. U.S. Department of Labor. Special Labor Force Report No. 54 Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1964. June 1965, p. 640.

17. Winn, Carl. The Threat and the Promise. pp. 32-33.

18. Wolfbein, Seymour. Automation: The Threat and the Promise Technological Change and Vocational Counseling. p. 64.

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL DIMENSIONS OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING With Special Emphasis on S. M. Miller's Classification of "The Stable Poor"

A Report Submitted in
Partial Fulfillment of the Course Requirements
of Guidance 400

By

John R. Banning, Chairman
Donald R. Bloss, Secretary
Walter Adams
James Athen
Carmon Bixler
Gerald Bolmeier
William Britson
Adair Callison
William Erpenbach
Allen Kelsay

July 1966

I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Programs of Federal aid to education adopted during the 1960's have been directed toward the economically and educationally deprived. The limited life fulfillment prospects of such people, in a supposedly affluent society should be of vital concern to schools during the next decade. To do this, it will be imperative for educators to better understand the non-school environmental factors influencing young people.

There is evidence of much disagreement among sociologists in efforts to classify or categorize the concepts "poor" and/or "lower class." Much of the controversy seems to center upon the development of adequate socio-economic criteria. However, a common denominator, that they are economically disadvantaged, does indeed serve as one agreeable indicator of the poor.

A conceptual framework for identifying and classifying various types of the poor has been offered by S. M. Miller. According to Miller's typological approach, there are four categories of the poor: the stable, the strained, the copers, and the unstable. (8, pp. 22-39)

Purpose

This paper will be concerned with the group Miller has identified as the "stable poor." Consideration of the characteristics of this particular class of people as they relate to the school counselor will be the primary concern. It is intended that counselors be provided with

more specific understandings on which to base their efforts in assisting and developing procedures for helping youngsters from this group.

The paper will be developed utilizing three basic steps. First, Miller's term, stable poor, will be defined operationally. Second, information and data describing the characteristics of this group and a listing of the programs and agencies assisting them will be presented. Third, a set of implications will be offered that should give counselors direction in considering approaches to be utilized in assisting economically deprived students in vocational choice and decision-making processes.

Delineations

Inasmuch as the purpose of this paper will be to take Miller's concept of the stable poor and develop understandings about it in order to appraise its usefulness, it follows that the definitions that are a part of this typology will also be adopted in this paper.

Miller describes the stable poor as " . . . regularly employed, low skill, stable poor families." (8, p. 27) In terms of the typology, this group is characterized by economic security and familial stability. The economic indicator is dichotomized in terms of security and insecurity, and although the stable poor are regarded as secure, it must be remembered that their incomes are marginal or below standards regarded as adequate. A number of cut-off figures or band areas are suggested by various authors as guidelines for identifying the poor, but this issue need not be resolved here.

The second variable offered by Miller involves family stability or life style. (8, p. 25) This criterion is dichotomized in terms of

stability and instability. The stable poor are, of course, the former and are seen by Miller as,

> . . . coping with their problem--the children being fed, although not necessarily on a schedule, the family meets its obligations, so that it is not forced to keep on the move, children are not getting into much more trouble than other children of the neighborhood. (8, p. 26)

II. BASIC FACTS

Statistical Description of Poor

Michael Harrington, in his book The Other America, gives the following definition of poverty:

> Poverty should be defined in terms of those who are denied the minimal levels of health, housing, food, and education that our present stage of scientific knowledge specifies as necessary for life as it is now lived in the United States. (2, p. 175)

Who are the American poor? This group constitutes approximately 25 percent of the total population and numbers somewhere between 40,000,000 and 50,000,000 people depending on what criterion is used to designate low income.

The 1960 United States Census of Population gives a summary of detailed characteristics of families with low income. Some of these statistics are listed below. (14, pp. 65-66)

FAMILIES WITH INCOME LESS THAN $3000 IN 1959

Characteristic	Total	White	Non-white
I. Total Families	9,650,000	7,615,000	2,035,000
II. Urban and Rural Non-farm (all families)	8,080,000	6,279,000	1,801,000
III. Rural Farm (all families)	1,570,000	1,336,000	234,000

A further breakdown of the American poor can be shown by taking the poorest fifth of the United States families and placing them in the following five groups. (See table on following page.)

POOREST FIFTH OF U. S. FAMILIES BY GROUPS: 1959 (14, p. 67)

Group	Population
Farmers	1,570,000
Aged	2,581,000
Mother & Child	1,561,000
Non-white	950,000
All Others	2,988,000
Total	9,650,000

The statistical information shown above indicates: (1) That the majority of the poor in America are white; (2) That although rural poverty is an important phase of American poverty, it does not constitute the main source of poverty that it did at one time; (3) That, in addition to non-white minorities, we must also consider the aged, families with a female head, children, people of low education, industrial rejects, migrant workers, and others.

The Stable Poor

The following factorial information has been compiled to characterize the "stable poor."

> 1. . . . in our work oriented society, those who cannot or do not work must expect to be poorer than those who do. Yet more than half of all poor families report that the head currently has a job. Moreover, half of these employed family heads, representing almost 30 percent of all the families called poor, have been holding down a full-time job for a whole year. In fact, of the 72 million poor families in 1963, one in every six (1.3 million) is the family of a white male worker who worked full time throughout the year. (8, p. 56)

> 2. Among 1.8 million male heads of families who were poor despite their year-round full-time employment, more than a fifth gave their current occupations as farmers, an equal number were operatives, and nearly a fifth were laborers. Only three percent were professional or technical workers. (9, p. 77)

3. The census figures indicate that in 1962 there were approximately 3.4 million non-farm families with husband and wife living together, the husband under sixty-five, and the family income under $3000. (6, p. 333)

4. . . . the poor families headed by a man fully employed throughout the year 1963 included 5.2 million children under age eighteen, and those headed by a fully employed woman worker had half a million. Thus 2 in 5 of all the children growing up in poverty were in a family of a worker with a regular full-time job. (9, p. 76)

5. In less than a fifth of the poor families headed by a man working full time the year around was the wife in the paid labor force, and in only about two-fifths was there more than one earner. (9, p. 77)

6. Among the families headed by a male year-round full-time worker with income less than the economy level, fewer than a third had no more than one child in the home and nearly a fourth had five or more. (9, p. 79)

7. What is more significant is that 73 percent of the non-white male heads of poor families were currently employed, and more than half of them--42 percent of all the poor--had been employed full time throughout 1963. Among male heads in white families with incomes below the economy level, only 56 percent were currently working, and no more than a third had been year-round full-time workers in 1963. (9, p. 74)

8. Among the male heads, only 1 in 3 of those in poor families was a full-time worker all during the year, compared with 3 in 4 of the heads in non-poor families. (9, p. 75)

9. . . . female heads, . . . the proportion working full time was much smaller--a tenth among poor families and not a full four-tenths among the non-poor. (9, p. 76)

10. Individuals sixty-five years of age or over. Three hundred thousand live on farms. (6, p. 333)

11. Employment as a source of income for the aged population of sixty-five and older is a status enjoyed only by one-fifth of that population. (6, p. 334)

Strategies of Reform

Three basic policies are possible:

1. Direct economic change--The economic plight of the stable poor is in part due to a lack of occupational skill, an inadequate educational

background, and the fact that many were employed in the rapidly disappearing unskilled agriculture occupations or other types of low-paying jobs. Their present employment continues to be unskilled and low paying with little opportunity for advancement. Their situation may have a tendency to perpetuate itself due to the fact that,

> many of the young persons in low-income families leave school before completing their education in order to supplement the family income. When they enter the labor makret with less than a high school education, they often enter dead-end jobs requiring little education or skill. (16, p. 9)

Since this group does have a measure of family stability, their greatest immediate needs seem to be economic. In our sophisticated, money-minded society, much of what we term happiness and success is dependent upon an adequate income, not just a job. The family needs include food, education, books, dental services, transportation, clothing, housing, medical services, etc., all of which are dependent upon income.

Therefore, it is evident that if the stable poor are to progress out of their present condition, the family income must reach at least the minimum family budget amount which is considered as "modest" but adequate by the United States Department of Labor for a family in the United States. This figure is approximately $3000.

A direct method of providing the necessary financial support to the stable poor is contained in the proposition of a guaranteed minimum income. One approach to this proposal is the negative income scheme that utilized the income tax machinery as a vehicle to supply minimum income to the poor. This notion of guaranteed income is explored in the book <u>In Poverty: American Style</u>, in which the causes of poverty and

techniques for combating it are discussed. However, society does not seem to be ready to accept this direct method.

By virtue of the fact that this group of poor does represent the family unit, there are a large number of government programs presently in existence which would alleviate their economic problems at least indirectly even if it would not eliminate them. These are mainly service programs which temporarily provide a means of meeting some of the needs of the family. These programs are discussed in the following section.

2. Direct Services--Other methods of assisting the "stable poor" have been provision for direct services designed to strengthen the ego-functioning of the individual, or to provide family assistance in the home.

(a) Homemaker services--This includes instruction and assistance in such areas as homemaking (cooking, sewing, child-care, etc.), handling of finances (borrowing, budgeting, shopping, etc.), and health.

(b) Clinic services--Provision of immunization clinics, dental care, speech and orthopedic clinics, and a visiting nurse service are areas that are of value to the family living in impoverished, yet stable family situation.

(c) Educational services--Communities have attempted to meet the needs of the poor through such approaches as adult education programs, emphasizing training in basic skills and/or basic education, vocational counseling and placement services, after-school activities for the children, and school lunch programs.

(d) Special services--Included here are such services as nursery programs for children of working mothers, family service agencies, and mental health centers.

A number of the Federal Aid Programs contain services that are, in part, a form of direct assistance to this group. Among these programs are the following:

1. Youth Opportunity Centers designed to assist youth in preparation for employment, and to place them in a suitable job.

2. Economic Opportunity Act which provides for the Job Corps and the Neighborhood Youth Corps.

3. Work-Study Programs for needy college students.

4. Adult Basic Education Programs for illiterates over 18 years of age.

5. Vocational Education Act of 1963 provides a work-study program to enable impoverished youth to stay in school.

6. Manpower Development and Training Act of 1963, Title II, provides for training or retraining of under-employed persons over 16 years of age.

3. Indirect change by affecting the climate--A relatively new emphasis in dealing with problems among the poor is focused on change in the cultural climate of lower-class neighborhoods. Education has played a part in these efforts. For example, the Higher Horizons program of New York City, with roots going back to 1956, has served as a model for affecting attitudes and behavior of school children by direct intervention into existing cultural patters. (5, p. 1) Similarly, the Lincoln Project of Albuquerque, New Mexico, funded through the National Defense Education

Act, has given special recognition to the effects of culture and class upon student motivation and achievement. (11, p. 21)

General understanding of the importance of cultural climate in effecting change among members of low-income groups was evidenced in War on Poverty legislation. The Neighborhood Youth Corps during its first year of operation provided more than 500,000 public service jobs for disadvantaged youths, 16 to 21 years of age, in 1,446 hometown private nonprofit projects. (15, p. 1) While the Neighborhood Youth Corps is administered by the Federal Government, "initiation, development, and direction of individual Neighborhood Youth Corps projects come from sources within the local community." (10, p. 119) Under the Office of Economic Opportunity, community action programs have been developed with direct planning involvement by low-income residents within the communities to "effect a permanent increase in the capacity of individuals, groups, and communities afflicted by poverty to deal effectively with their own problems so that they need no further assistance." (10, p. 123) These and other examples of Federal Government programs have been directed toward encouraging low-income citizens to become active in influencing change within their neighborhoods.

If this trend exists, it may be a move away from what some critics have referred to as "welfare colonialism." (13, pp. 308-348) Saul Alinsky, an activist and controversial figure in promoting political action among low-income citizens, has received national attention as an organizer for neighborhood programs involving popular participation and leadership by the poor. (12, p. 37-38)

III. IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

Vocational Decision-Making

Better Jobs. Due to the upward mobility characteristics of the stable poor, sound vocational decision-making must be based on the awareness that entry jobs should lead to a full and productive life (basically better-paying jobs).

Familial Involvement. Due to the stability of the family of the stable poor, there is a need for full cooperative support of parents and family members for individuals preparing for the world of work.

Financial Assistance. Due to the need for financial assistance of the stable poor, all financial assistance for training or retraining and future training needs applicable to each individual should be pursued to its fullest in the vocational decision-making process.

Local Programs

Local school systems may best contribute to programs for the poor by affecting social and behavioral changes through educational programs. However, some direct services to students and/or families are needed; and provisions for direct economic assistance are necessary in some communities.

A promising area deserving much more attention lies in the school's involvement in indirect change through attitude and behavior change.

State Programs

Certain authority has been vested in state boards of education and departments of education by the state legislature for the over-all regulation of the legal, financial and instructional aspects of education. Recent indications of public support, like the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title V, for improved leadership in education, may allow state educational agencies to assume a more active role in initiating studies and programs designed to improve the quality of education. The needs of educationally-deprived groups of which the stable poor are a substantial part should receive high priority in these plans.

The stable poor, because of their low but economically secure positions and familial stability by Miller's standards, may easily escape the attention of state educational agencies in terms of their taking an active role in assisting communities or school districts in identifying and helping meet the educational and vocational needs of youth within this group.

IV. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Miller's typological approach appears to have merit as an operational procedure for understanding varying patterns of need among the poor. Since definite data about specific categories in the Miller typology are limited, the information presented in this paper deals with the more general aspects of the poor. The stable poor are recognized as one significant group included under the general classification.

Recommendations

1. Information and understandings of the opportunities and procedures for job transfer either horizontally or vertically should be developed.

2. Parents or family heads should be involved in the vocational decision-making process as early as possible.

3. Financial aid programs should be developed which will serve specifically the stable poor.

4. Counselors should have close working relationships with social and welfare agencies that can provide assistance to students and/or their parents.

5. Counselors should assist students in seeking part-time employment in the community.

6. Schools should design specialized educational programs specifically geared to meet the needs of low-income students.

7. Expand adult education programs.

8. Expand programs of special services, particularly social work and nursing service.

9. All school personnel must examine their values in relation to the total value structure of the community, particularly the value orientation of the lower class.

10. Sociological analysis of the community is necessary in order to understand values and expectations of all students and to be sensitive to the needs of the community.

11. Schools should be open to changing traditional patterns of school placement and grading.

12. State education agencies should consider initiating studies that will allow for local, regional and/or state-wide collection of data on educational needs, school dropouts, educational achievement, employment opportunities, training, follow-up information on students which should provide a basis for determining priority and allocation of staff and resources.

13. Policy by state boards of education might be adopted for the purpose of establishing minimum standards for counselor certification and counselor payment ratio that will reasonably guarantee students access to guidance and counseling service provided by an educationally competent counselor. Additional financial assistance may be required to help school districts with limited economic resoures attract and hold counselors.

14. State legislation and financial assistance might be required in some states to guarantee and support adequate vocational education programs in areas with limited economic resources for the purpose of

providing students from low-income families equity of educational opportunities.

15. State education agencies should provide specialized consultant services that will assist schools in identifying stable poor and developing programs that will more adequately meet their specialized needs.

16. State education agencies should offer improved services to schools through the collection and organization of information and the development of materials that could be used by counselors in informing students about occupations and vocational education opportunities.

In their attempts to understand human behavior, counselors may be too inclined to concentrate exclusively on personality as a unit in isolation. Probably counselors are only beginning to realize the full significance of social forces on the development of human behavior. However, rather than adopting a sociological approach in place of an individualistic approach, counselors may come to a better realization of the impact of both internal and external forces in shaping personality. It happens that psychologists are interested in personality systems; sociologists are more concerned with the outside structures. Both are justified in their particular focus. But the counselor in his desire to provide help to students needs to watch for and recognize the numerous points of intersection and interdependence of the two structures.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Brameld, Theodore. Cultural Foundations of Education. New York: Harper, 1957.

2. Harrington, Michael. The Other America. Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1962.

3. Hickerson, Nathaniel. Education for Alienation. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966.

4. Komarovsky, Mirra. Blue-Collar Marriage. New York: Random House, 1964.

5. Landers, Jacob. Higher Horizons. New York: Board of Education of the City of New York.

6. Means, Gardner C. "Job Opportunities and Poverty," Poverty as a Public Issue. New York: Free Press, 1965.

7. Miller, Herman P. In Poverty: American Style. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth.

8. Miller, S. M. "The American Lower Classes: A Typological Approach," New Perspectives on Poverty, Arthur B. Shostak and William Gomberg, editors. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.

9. Orshansky, Mollie. "Consumption, Work, and Poverty," Poverty as a Public Issue. New York: Free Press, 1965.

10. Roney, Ruth Anne. The Doubleday Guide to Federal Aid Programs: 1966-67. Garden City: Doubleday & Company, 1966.

11. Segel, David and Ronald A. Ruble. The Lincoln Project. Albuquerque: Albuquerque Public Schools, 1962.

12. Sanders, Marion K. "The Professional Radical: Conversations with Saul Alinsky," Harper's, Vol. 230, No. 1381:37-47, June, 1965.

13. Silberman, Charles E. Crisis in Black and White. New York: Random House, 1964.

14. Miller, Herman P. Rich Man, Poor Man. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1964.

15. U. S. Department of Labor. From a World of Poverty to a Life of Hope. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office.

16. U. S. Department of Labor. Young Workers, Their Special Training Needs. Manpower Research Bulletin No. 3. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, May 1963.

17. Warner, W. Lloyd, Robert J. Havighurst and Martin B. Loeb. Who Shall Be Educated? New York: Harper, 1944.

18. Wilensky, Harold L. Industrial Society and Social Welfare. New York:

Training Institute for Vocational Guidance

and Counseling Personnel

July 1966

Area Two - Social and Cultural Dimensions
of Vocational Counseling

ANALYSIS OF S.M. MILLER'S "COPER" CELL CLASSIFICATION

Group II

Garland Longhofer - Co-Chairman
Walter Horvatich - Recorder
Dellas Chastain - Co-Chairman
Reynold Erickson
Frank Downhour
Walt Flannery
Lester Foote
Richard Galusha
Bruce Gould
Dennis Hanley

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	Introductory Statement	1
	Problem, Purpose, Delineations	2
II.	ELABORATION OF COPERS	4
III.	REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	9
	Evidence of Validation	11
IV.	IMPLICATIONS FOR GUIDANCE	14
V.	POSSIBLE INTEGRATION OF THE TYPOLOGICAL APPROACH WITH OTHERS ALREADY DEMONSTRATED AS USEFUL TO THE SOCIAL CLINICIAN	18
VI.	SUGGESTION FOR REFINEMENT	23
VII.	CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	30
VIII.	BIBLIOGRAPHY	31

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introductory Statement

Never before has the conscience of the nation been stirred to such depths about the welfare of the poor. To a great degree, past concern has been relegated to a few caring individuals who did little more than distribute baskets at Thanksgiving and Christmas. Many were content to classify the needy into the general category of "the poor" and forget them.

The people have slowly, but finally, come to realize the need to relieve poverty, both from the humanitarian motive as well as the economic. Before the situation can be corrected, it is necessary to determine the causes. To do this makes it necessary to study the parts.

A parallel may be drawn here to the early mystery which surrounded the field of medicine. Many illnesses were attributed to an omen, and the cure remained unknown. As the science of medicine advanced, it became apparent that the cause could only be determined by an exhaustive scrutiny of each infintesimal part of the body and its relation to another. By understanding the function of each part and its relation to each other part and to the whole, intelligent cure could be effected.

Such is the situation in the area of poverty. It is now imperative that we find a more satisfactory method of exploring the problem. This requires a study of the parts. To do this, we must devise new methods for the task.

Miller proposes a plan designed to aid the study by enabling an analysis of the parts. This plan has been labeled a typological approach. (9, p. 29) If this approach has merit, it will be revised and refined many times until it more suitably meets the demand. Though this specific plan may be pushed aside in favor of a more functioning device, it will have made its contribution, for it will have been the start of a number of devices which are sure to follow.

Problem, Purpose, Delineations

In recent years there has been a great amount of legislation directed toward alleviating the poverty situation in the United States. Much of this legislation took the form of poverty programs aimed at improving the lot of the "poor people."

As a direct result of these various programs, some means had to be devised to finding and classifying the poor. A variety of methods were suggested, and some are in use. However, there is no one method that has proven itself to be entirely adequate.

It was the problem and purpose of this paper to analyze one of the more recent techniques of classification. Through the study of S. M. Miller's approach to classification in general and the "Coper Cell" in particular, it was hoped that the writers would arrive at a

> . . . set of more refined, or more specific categories of the poor . . . that would enable the counselor to . . . better be able to apply specialized techniques and/or communicate meaningfully to the people he is trying to help.

CHAPTER II

ELABORATION OF COPERS

Miller postulates that the traditional method of defining the low class, i.e., economic role and style of life, are inadequate for the purpose of studying the area of poverty and its many facets. Instead, he brings them together in an effort to "utilize class (income) and status (style of life) variables in categorizing a population." (9, p. 24)

The aim is to be able to describe the degrees of effectiveness of different styles of life in handling the same environment. He attempts to accomplish this by cross-tabulating the two dimensions of the two variables in a table. The two dimensions are economic security and familial stability. This results in the creation of four categories or "cells." These "cells" are labeled as: cell one, the stable poor; cell two, the strained; cell three, the copers; and cell four, the unstable.

The Stable Poor

This group is composed of those persons whose income would be limited to the extent that they are unable to afford those human needs considered as necessary for a healthy life, free from want for all necessities and many luxuries, a form of survival is possible. The familial

pattern of this group is one of stability. The family is composed of individuals who are at least reasonably emotionally stable, contributing to a sound family unit.

The Strained

This group is characterized by a secure economic pattern but one in which interpersonal conflicts exist. In this family, there is sufficient food for the family, though the selection and quality may be lacking. The basic physical needs are being met.

The characteristic of this family, which would be most obvious, is the lack of a solid family structure. As a result, a strained atmosphere is existant. Causes for this may be such factors as a broken home, members who are alcoholic or addicted to drugs, members who are frequently involved in violence and delinquency.

The Copers

This group "manifests economic insecurity and familial stability." (9, p. 29) This group is similar to the stable poor in the respect that the familial stability is represented here to a distinguishable degree. They further resemble the stable poor in that improvement in the economic situation may create an upward mobile movement, extending out of the poverty category.

This category contains many aged who have had a higher income potential during the years of employment but are

now forced into an area of need because of compulsory retirement. This example would be characterized by a downward mobile movement. Included also would be individuals formerly employed in occupations of low income yield which were insufficient to afford an existence above a bare subsistence level.

The worker who has been disabled either permanently or to such an extent that he cannot continue gainful employment for an extended period of time and who is ineligible to receive benefits from any source would suddenly become a coper until such time of recovery or until a substitute income could be devised.

The seasonal employee in a low paying occupation may, in time of unemployment, slip from the stable cell to the coper, until new periods of employment return.

In certain areas of the nation there are families within the coper category who eke out an existence on a very few acres of land. The greater part of the inadequate diet is raised and consumed on the premises. The only cash income received by the family comes from the annual sale of a small cash crop such as tobacco, cotton, honey, melons, etc. The income from such sales may amount to a few hundred dollars per year.

Families who are plagued by extended or chronic illness resulting in great drains on the income may also find themselves in the coper group at least until conditions improve.

"Negro stable" within the coper category would describe the Negro families whose economic insecurity stems from job discriminati n or limited op ortunities. Despite recent legislation m ny Negroes experience job discrimination under other guises. Due to lack of skills, some only find seasonal employment, part time or service jobs. In the mother dominated family, the income may be derived from domestic work on an irregular schedule. In localities where discrimination is being successfully combatted, many of this group may be termed as upward mobile.

Further conditions which may result in family groups to be included in the coper category are those of unemployment because of plant closing due to relocation and lay-offs of low paid employees due to technological changes. These conditions are compounded in the cases of workers who have reached the age where the are passed over for younger workers in other areas of possible employment.

No attempt has been made to enumerate every category included in the coper cell. Examples are provided the reader to illustrate the diverse nature of this category, and at the same time, show its limits.

The Unstable

This group is composed of those persons whose income is drastically inadequate to provide more than is necessary to sustain life. Added to this extreme economic situation

are the members whose behavior pattern deviates to the extent that conflicts result.

CHAPTER III

[illegible] OF [illegible]

Do Poverty Study Groups Recognize the Coper Category?

In assessing the evidence that there is, or is not, general recognition of the "coper" category by the various groups involved in poverty studies, the following conclusions were reached.

Miller, in an attempt to move away from a broadly and vaguely defined "low class," has concluded that his deductions regarding poverty have provided a thought provoking start. Unfortunately, the material to include all dimensions to do an adequate job is lacking. Also, some of Miller's concepts regarding this category approach have been misinterpreted by such writers as Martin Rein. In his article referring to Miller's "coper" category, Rein combines the "copers" with the "strained" and seems to place an incorrect interpretation on the meaning of "skidder..." (10, p. 286)

There are some evidences of a general recognition of types of poor that might be related to the "coper" category approach.

> Hylan Lewis has suggested the categories of clinical, preclinical, and subclinical to delineate patterns among the poor. I would substitute the word chronic for clinical. The chronic refer to the long-term dependents, part of whom would be the "hard-core"; the prechronics would be a high risk group which is moving toward a chronic situation

> but have not yet become chronically dependent. The subchronic are those who have many characteristics of dependence but who also have a greater ability to cope with their problems. (17, p. 31)

Another writer uses three classifications of the poverty groups--general, case, and insular. Of these three, two would seem to have the general characteristics used by Miller. The case poverty groups are identified as being in every community, rural and urban, whose characteristics are in some way related to the individual. This group is roughly comparable to the pathological characteristics of our previously identified unstable group. The insular poverty term identifies characteristics other than individual inadequacies. This group's poverty may largely be due to environmental causes, but one characteristic of the group is the strong "homing instinct;" referring to the desire to remain at or near their place of birth. This group would appear to resemble the "coper" group because of the stable family conditions and unstable economic conditions. (7, p. 252)

Information appearing in a pamphlet of the Education Policies Commission, although no specific identifying term is used, states the disadvantaged group made up of rural Negro and hill whites usually constitute a stable work group even though it may be a matriarchal family with the men unable to fill the role of principal bread winner. (6, p. 7)

Another writer stresses the matriarchal role and the pathology that may occur when the coping efforts of the normal family are not cooperative. The Negro female-led extended family is a powerful coping device for dealing with the problem of the poor. (15, p. 43)

Other economists, viewing the problem in world-wide terms, have spoken of collective poverty, cyclical poverty, and individual poverty. (19, p. 3)

An overview of these evidences show very little use of the "coper" category concept expressed by Miller. However, there is sufficient evidence to indicate that many different agencies, local, state, and national are studying this same group, but without the use of Miller's specific termonology.

Evidence of Validation

Due to the recency of the movement to better identify those people who fall into the lower class classification, there appears to be little but circumstantial evidence which points to effectiveness, or lack of it, of any system as useful in providing better identification which, in turn, will provide better assistance in meeting the needs of those people as they face the problem of existence.

Those organizations, agencies, and individuals involved in programs and other efforts to provide better assistance are realizing the inadequacy of present identification

factors used in setting perimeters of groups who fall into the lower class.

> Thirty-two million Americans remain in poverty and millions more are unable to realize their full economic potential. America's abundance leaves behind too many who are aged, who are stranded in declining rural areas, who are uneducated, or handicapped, or victims of discrimination. (4, p. 8)

> Much of this will be derived from the social sciences and the humanities as well as the physical and biological sciences. It will be concerned with such values as individuality, diversity, and decentralization rather than conformity, massive organization, and concentration. It will be directed toward human environmental, and resource development rather than the proliferation of conventional consumer goals. (13, p.13)

Among significant others, The President's Committee for Economic Development has set forth the need for "better adaptation of our educational system to the needs and opportunities of the economic system and better uses of the capacities of the economic system to help meet the needs of education. (14, p. 43)

Direct efforts are needed toward further identification of ethnic and/or racial groups as they are involved in family structure with the objective of strengthening these families to enable them to raise and support its members as do other families. (5, p. 12)

Wilensky identifies general categories requiring further attention such as "changes in the working class, its position, the chances for mobility out of it, and its relation to the other classes." His supportive contention

is that "the incidence of these problems and the form they take, however, vary greatly by social class, ethnicity, race, and degree of urbanization of the community . . ."

"The war on poverty, despite the concern with the characteristics of the poor has not sensed the diversity of their condition and the need for varied programs." (16, p. 287)

Minority ethnic groups and the American Negro are, in large part, the essence of the poverty-stricken or lower class. Thus, it follows that we must create better economic opportunities for these groups through better education, better occupational opportunities, and improved social relations--all evolved from improved identification of specific groups as occurs in Glazer's and Moynihan's Beyond the Melting Pot. (8, p. 49) This improved identification would greatly assist in eliminating or reducing significantly impoverished conditions that now exist.

In substance, the minority ethnic groups and the American Negro are essentially stable within the family whether it be immediate family or extended family. Yet, through lack of education, discrimination, ineffective use of their occupational potentials, the economic stability of these groups places them at the lower fringe of our society. By identification of this group as "copers," as S. M. Miller does in The American Lower Classes, "A Typological Approach," awareness is created of their particular problems, the first step in elimination or reduction of poverty.

CHAPTER IV

IMPLICATIONS FOR GUIDANCE

A counselor must be able to understand the unique character of each student with whom he works. If the counseling interview is to be a positive experience for the student, the counselor must be cognizant of the experiences, values, motivations, aspirations and needs at work in the student's life. Avenues of exploration will depend upon the readiness of the student to explore. The counselor should be aware that children from coper families have had limited experiences, and as a result, there may be deficiencies in the student's vocational development. Values may be different. These children have a strong homing instinct which is expressed through strong family, kin, or tribal identification.

Social status may be based on different values. Without an understanding of the student's way of life, many actions may be misinterpreted by counselors and other school staff.

It is within these contexts that Miller's categories of the American lower classes would seem to have some value. Acceptance of the category of the "copers" would imply less need for specificity of the home situation (i.e., the causes of economic instability) but rather focus on

the effect on the student coming from the home. The effect on the student may be the same regardless of the cause, and this would determine the course of action to be followed.

The main focus, as a problem area for families in Cell three, "the copers," is on economic insecurity. This group would therefore seem to be especially amenable to change, if means of alleviating economic difficulties can be found.

The general orientation of S.M. Miller in developing the category is "to emphasize flux rather than to assume a permanent position in a pattern." (17, p. 27) This would tend to indicate that families in this category may be there only temporarily; movement at this point may be up or down. A change in the employment status of the family breadwinner, for instance, might cause such directional mobility. It is important that the counselor be aware of the kind of mobility, if any, of the family from which a student comes.

Since the primary problem area of families classed as "copers" is economic insecurity, counseling will also tend to center around the effect of family economics on the student. Does he see himself planning to complete high school? Trade school? College? An apprenticeship program? What are some of the difficulties involved, including finances? Is he interested in work-study programs? What scholarships might be available to him? Is there need for help from outside sources, such as welfare?

It would be important for the counselor also to be aware of the attitude of the family to the student. Do they expect him to contribute to the family income? Is he expected to buy his own clothes, pay rent to his parents? Does he earn any money? How does he spend it? Do his parents encourage him in thinking about improving himself by further education or training? Would they tend to reject him if he attended college or some other school? Would there be conflicts in standards between his present situation and aspired position? How could he cope with the conflicts? What kind of life would his aspirations require? Is he ready to consider the adjustments? If a girl, how does the family perceive the female role? In what ways might the school and counselor help him in his thinking and planning? In exploring vocational choices, first-hand contacts with people in the field, where possible, would be most important.

The counselor should be willing to take an active part in helping the student cope with environmental problems. This may involve helping him find part-time work, arranging for free lunches, securing clothing, arranging for medical or dental help, or performing other kinds of helping activities.

As the proper type of help is given and changes occur it will be necessary that supportive counseling be provided. He should be made aware of the possibilities of the modification of his present status by the changes being brought about.

Problems of rejection, or possible rejection by his peers or others in the school, discrimination, or other ego-destroying experiences might be discussed. Emphasis should be on utilizing resources for self-help and strengthening the individual. Others in the school working with the student should also be involved.

Where possible, parental involvement should be encouraged. It is extremely important that nothing be done to destroy relations between the student and his parent, but rather try to improve them. This would allow the student to draw upon family strengths, and may also contribute to an upward movement of the whole family; parents as well as other members of the family may identify with the higher aspirations.

Miller's categories are sociological--the treatment of the family as a group. The counselor, on the other hand, is involved with the individual; and he is concerned with the family only as family situations affect the individual student. There are limitations, therefore, as well as potentials, in applying one concept to another. Counselors should always be cautious of the dehumanizing possibilities of any classification system or diagnostic category that tends to stereotype students. Categories are of value to counselors only as they provide help in better understanding students. The above suggestions and implications are only a beginning in this effort.

CHAPTER V

POSSIBLE INTEGRATION OF THE TYPOLOGICAL APPROACH WITH OTHER ALREADY ESTABLISHED APPROACHES USEFUL TO THE SOCIAL CLINICIAN

The social clinicians have found some approaches useful to them in identifying specific types that would fall within or could be integrated into Miller's third Cell or "copers" classification. The approaches that show the most promise for integration into the typological approach are mentioned here.

Glazer and Moynihan believe that the intense and unpresidented mixture of ethnic and religious groups in American life have not blended into the homogenous end product that many had hoped for and that the persisting facts of ethnicity demand attention, understanding and accomodation. They point out that from the beginning, our society and our policies have been at least as much concerned with values as with interests, and the principal ethnic groups of New York City will maintain a distinct identity from one generation to the next. Glazer and Moynihan identify seven groups that make up New York City. These groups identified by Glazer and Moynihan are: Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Jews, Italians, Irish, German, and one group classified as "White Anglo-Saxon Protestants." (8, p. 8)

It would seem that a family identified as copers could also be identified as belonging to an ethnic group. This combined classification could be easily integrated to provide a more refined category for counseling purposes.

Warner, Meeker, and Eells have prepared a manual of procedures for the measurement of social status. (19) In this manual, they discuss two methods that can be used by social scientists who wish to identify quickly and easily the class levels of a community or the social class of a particular individual or family. The two methods are called Evaluated Participation (E. P.) and the Index of Status Characteristics (I. S. C.). Together they provide accurate procedures for measuring social class and the class position of individuals, for validating results obtained, and for translating social class and socio-economic status categories into terms which are interchangeable.

The method of Evaluated Participation, comprising several rating techniques, is posed on the proposition that those who interact in the social system of a community evaluate the participation of those around them, that the place where an individual participates is evaluated, and that the members of the community are aware of the ranking and translate their evaluations of such social participation into social classratings that can be communicated to the investigator.

The Index of Status Characteristics measures the socio-economic levels of the community and, when related

to Evaluated Participation, makes it possible for the status analyst to say what is meant in socio-economic terms by such class concepts as upper, middle, or lower class, and correspondingly, what is meant by higher or lower socio-economic levels in terms of social class and Evaluated Participation.

The Index of Status Characteristics as a measurement of social class is posed on two propositions; that economic and other prestige factors are highly important and closely correlated with social class, and that these social and economic factors such as talent, income, and money, if their potential for rank are to be realized, must be translated into social class behavior acceptable to any given social level of the community. This method is designed to provide an objective method for establishing the social level of everyone in the community and to do so by simple, inexpensive means. The Index of Status Characteristics is, primarily, an index of socio-economic factors; but evidence is presented to demonstrate that it can be used with a considerable degree of confidence as an index of social class position as well. The researchers provide explicit instructions for the use of the index in any community.

There are four status characteristics used in the index and the first step in securing an I. S. C. for any given individual in a community is to obtain ratings for him on each of the four status characteristics--occupations, source

of income, house type, and dwelling area, which comprise the index.

These ratings are made on seven-point scales which are described in detail by the researchers. The four ratings are then totaled after assigning to each one, a weight which expresses that particular status characteristics in social class prediction. The resultant indexes will range from twelve (very high socio-economic status) to eighty-four (very low status). In this system, there are eleven social class equivalents for I. S. C. ratings. They range from the upper class to the lower-lower class. (19, p. 41) It would seem that Warner, Meeker, and Eells have developed some scientific methods of identifications that could be used to help identify "copers."

The Federal Government has been forced to find methods of identifying people who are considered to be living in poverty so that candidates for the different programs of the Office of Economic Opportunity can be located. One such program is the Upward Bound Program.

The Upward Bound Program students who are to be financed by the O. E. O. must be from families whose annual incomes meet the poverty criteria set forth on two different scales. One scale is non-farm households and runs from a low of fifteen hundred dollars for a family with one child to a high of five thousand for a family of seven or more children. The other is for farm households and runs from one thousand

and ninety dollars to thirty-five hundred dollars. (11, p. 6) The O. E. O. does not try to separate the culturally deprived from the poverty group, but that they are the same.

Miller attempts to move away from a broadly and vaguely defined lower class into a specification of types of lower class individuals. The copers of Cell three, however, are still a rather broad classification. This group could be further broken down into sub-groups such as the ethnic groups identified by Glazer and Moynihan. Research techniques developed by Warner, Meeker, and Eells could be used to classify copers into three or four lower classes on the I. S. C. rating scale. It should also be useful to identify those young people whose families meet the poverty criteria of the Office of Economic Opportunity. If this is not done, potential candidates for government programs could be overlooked.

CHAPTER VI

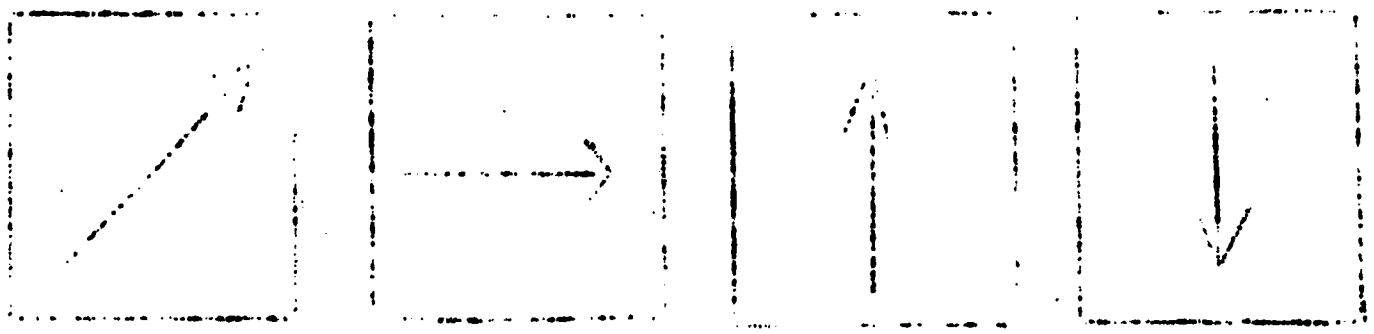
SUGGESTION FOR REFINEMENT

Although Miller's approach does produce a more specific and applicable category description of the American lower class and as such does have a value to the school counselor in working with the individual, the approach does limit the type and amount of information available. Therefore, in full realization of the hazards of over generalization and at the risk of being unfair to the approach suggested by Miller, the following suggestions are made as a possible move toward a more refined approcach that would direct more attention to the recognition of the individual and his relation to the social group.

Miller's classifications imply mobility of the family group from one cell to another but makes no definite provision for identifying the status or direction of mobility that the family or group may be in. The writers suggest that in order to work more effectively with an individual or group a designation of

> directional mobility should be added to the approach. This could possibly be designated somewhere within the cell possibly in the form of an arrow or symbol that would designate the direction of mobility.

For example:



Diagonal Mobility | Cross Mobility | Upward Mobility | Downward Mobility

A second approach could be Miller's attempt to move away from a broadly and vaguely defined lower class into a specification of types of lower class individuals. The copers of Cell three, however, are still a rather broad classification. This group could be further broken down into sub-groups such as the ethnic groups identified by Glazer and Moynihan. Research techniques developed by Warner, Meeker and Eells could be used to classify copers into three or four lower classes on the I. S. C. rating scale. It should also be useful to identify those young people whose families meet the poverty criteria of the Office of Economic Opportunity. If this is not done, potential candidates for government programs could be overlooked.

Another method of refinement that may have some merit would be the use of a three step approach that would incorporate portions of Miller's approach that would arrive at a socio-economic classification number for the individual

that would represent or classify him or his family as belonging to a broad social class (lower class) the status of the family within the class (upper-lower) the identification of the particular cell that the family is categorized in according to Miller's classification (Coper Cell) and finally the number would designate the individual's status in relation to his family or group in that cell. This number could then be punched out on an IBM card and could be used as a means of quick future reference. It is further suggested that this approach could be used not only for classification of the lower class group but the upper and middle class groups as well. The following are sample tables and interpretation:

STEP I

IDENTIFICATION OF GENERAL SOCIAL CLASS

A. UPPER CLASS	B. MIDDLE CLASS	C. LOWER CLASS
1. Upper Upper___	1. Upper Middle___	1. Upper Lower___
2. Middle Upper___	2. Middle Middle___	2. Middle Lower___
3. Lower Upper___	3. Lower Middle___	3. Lower Lower___

Classification No._____

STEP II

CLASSIFICATION OF FAMILY STATUS BY FACTOR

A. 1 = Money

FAMILIAL	
(1) Stable ☐	(2) Strained ☐
(3) Coper ☑	(4) Unstable ☐

Classification No._____

STEP III

CLASSIFICATION OF INDIVIDUAL STATUS IN RELATION TO FAMILY WITHIN THE CELL CLASSIFICATION

CELL

A. 1 =Money

INDIVIDUAL FAMILY STATUS	
(1) Secure ☐	(2) Coping ☐
(3) Strained ☑	(4) Insecure ☐

Classification No._____

SAMPLE CODE SHEET

General Classification Code No.'s and Characteristics

C. Lower Class
1. Upper Lower
2. Middle Lower
3. Lower Lower

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS
Warner, Meekee and Wells Index of Characteristics could be used here.(19)

Family Cell Classification Code Numbers

1. Stable
2. Strained
3. Coper
4. Unstable

CHARACTERISTICS
Miller's Characteristics could be used here

Individual Cell Classification Code No.'s

1. Secure
2. Coping
3. Strained
4. Insecure

CHARACTERISTICS
Warner, Meeker and Wells Characteristics could be used here.(19)

Code Numbers of Factors to be Considered

1. Money
2. Health
3. Education

See Warner Meeker and Wells Index of Status Characteristics (19)

Interpretation of Table

Step I: The counselor, by gathering information on the family through interview, cumulative folder, etc., could, after comparing the information that he has gathered on the family with the general class characteristics could assign a general class number to the family by checking the appropriate spaces in Step I table.

Step II: Family Classification by Cell and Factor

This is accomplished by using the family information gathered in step one and inserting various factors in space "A" of Step II table. For example, the counselor may wish to classify the status of the family economically. The money factor code number one from code sheet would be inserted into space "A" Then, by comparing family characteristics with Miller's Cell Characteristics, a classification number is assigned by checking the appropriate spaces provided for in the table.

Step III; Individual Classification in Relation to His Family Within the Classification Cell

The same procedure would be used in this step as was used in Step II. Warner, Meekee and Eells Index of Status Characteristics would be used here in place of S. M. Miller's Cell Characteristics.

The final classification number is a combination of the general classification number, cell classification number and the individual classification number.

For example, the writer has checked spaces on the sample table that would be put down as the socio-economic number of the individual.

C2 = General Classification Number
13 = Famil Cell Classification Number
13 - Individual Classification Number
Final Socio-Economic Classification Number = C2-13-13

This is interpreted as the family belonging to the middle lower class category (C2) and characterized economically as insecure copers (13) and the individual, by virtue of his classification number, relationship within the family is strained because of the money factor (13).

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Since guidance in general and counseling in particular are confronted with flesh and blood individuals interacting with their own worlds, no one discipline or application of technique can possibly offer all the help needed for guidance to function effectively in the school setting. Psychology, sociology, cultural anthropology, economics, philosophy, and psychiatry all can lead us toward a better understanding of the individual. In view of the above mentioned philosophy and whereas the concept under study in this paper is based on only two essential deminsions, the writers conclude that the concept of S. M. Miller's is somewhat limited in its usefullness for counseling in the school setting.

It is the recommendation of the writers that a concerted effort be made through intensive research toward the establishment of an adequate interdisciplinary basis for guidance and counseling. A synthesis not only in action but in thinking as well, should be the goal of those concerned with assisting the individual in his adjustments to fit into his group and society.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Blocher, Donald H. Developmental Counseling. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966.

2. Byrne. The School Counselor. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1963.

3. Children and Youth in the 1960's. Survey papers prepared for 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth. Washington: Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, Inc., 1960.

4. Committee for Economic Development. Raising Low Incomes Through Improved Education. Research and Polic Committ e, 1965.

5. Council of Economic Advisors. Economic Report of the President. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966.

6. Educational Policies Commission. Education and the Disadvantaged American. National Education Association, 1962.

7. Galbraith, Kenneth B. The Affluent Society. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1958.

8. Glazer, Nathan and Daniel P. Moynihan. Beyond the Melting Pot. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press, 1963.

9. Miller, S.M. "The American Low Classes. A Typological Approach." New Perspectives on Poverty. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

10. Miller, S. M. and Martin Rein. "The War on Poverty: Perspectives and Prospecrs." Poverty as a Public Issue. Ben B. Seligman, editor. New York: The Free Press, 1965.

11. Office of Economic Opportunity. Guidelines: Upward Bound. Washington, D. C.: Office of Economic Opportunity, 1965.

12. Office of Policy Planning and Research. The Negro Family. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Labor, 1965.

13. National Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress. Technology and the American Economy. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

14. Reissman, Frank. "The Strength of the Poor." New Perspectives on Poverty. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

15. Schreiber, Daniel, editor. Guidance and the School Dropout. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1964.

16. Seligman, B. (ed.)Poverty as a Public Issue. New York: The Free Press, 1965.

17. Shostak, Arthur B. and William Gomberg. New Perspectives on Poverty. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

18. Shriver, Sargent. Poverty. Americana Corporation, 1965. Reprinted from The Encyclopedia Americana.

19. Warner, Lloyd W., Meeker and Eells. Social Classes in America. Chicago: Science Research and Associates, 1940.

20. Wilensky, Harold L. and Charles N. Lebeaux. Industrial Society and Social Welfare. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: William Fells Company, Russell Sage, 1958.

TRAINING INSTITUTE FOR VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PERSONNEL

July 22, 1966

AREA TWO

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL DIMENSIONS OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

"The Unstable Poor"

Group 3

John Cornette) Co-Chairmen
Ralph Onarheim)
Janet Land) Co-Secretaries
Bill Rosser)
Russell Frid
David Looney
John McCarthy
Jim Nickell
Dermot Schnack
David Yahnig

I. PROBLEM

To identify and better understand the "unstable poor" in an effort to develop improved counseling techniques and programs unique to this group.

II. BASIC FACTS

The degrees and types of poverty are defined by the sociologist in a manner designed to best explain a concept or an idea with which he is concerned. Various terms are used, all of which may be correct, depending on the writer's definitions of the words used. Galbraith, in his The Affluent Society, recognized two types of contemporary poverty: case poverty and insular poverty. Case poverty is caused by some physical or mental disability. Insular poverty is that which exists in areas such as the Appalachians. It is caused by technical advancement or by natural environment. Harrington, in his book The Other America, indicates that the poor cannot be defined in a simple manner; there is also a poorness in body and in the spirit. He indicates that this is reflected in unstable homes, illness (in some cases psychosomatic), and apathy. It is his contention that the various causes of poverty separate the people into groups with differences in motivation, attitudes, needs, perspectives, and life styles. Two of his broad classifications based on the causes of the poverty are:

1. Rejects--born poor, low skill level, usually unemployed, may work in sweat shops. These people are willing to work if given the opportunity. The mentally ill and the physically ill may also be considered among the rejects. For reasons beyond their control, they are the poor.

2. The "Golden Years"--recognizing poverty among the aged. Many are middle class who have retired on a reduced income. These people

drop into an insecure, inadequately financed life. They too, are the poor.

The category used by S. M. Miller to identify the lowest segment of the poor is the "unstable." The individuals in this group have neither economic security nor personal stability. These persons are not able to maintain either satisfactory intra-personal or inter-personal relations and are thus multi-handicapped in the face of nonexistent or subsistence level income. Within this "unstable poor" group, however, there are degrees of stability and strain.

The "unstable poor" is made up of partially urbanized Negroes new to the North and to cities, remaining slum residents of ethnic groups which have largely moved out of the slums, and long-term poor white families. Here also are included the physically handicapped and the elderly who are regressing through the class structure.

It appears that David Matza's term "disreputable poor" and Miller's "unstable poor" are synonomous. Matza says that the disreputable poor has four components, each making a distinct contribution: (1) Dregs, (2) Newcomers, (3) Skidders, and (4) Infirm.

1. Dregs--persons spawned in poverty and belonging to families who have been left behind by otherwise mobile ethnic populations. They are the key components of the disreputable poor. Income is obviously low; work is at the unskilled or semi-skilled level; job duration is short. Living is on a day-to-day basis and frequent ill health results in intermittent employment, with savings virtually unknown. The household is extremely complex, and there is disorder of family life with members of the family resorting to violence in settling quarrels and training children.

Disreputable poor are the least educated and the least interested in education. They feel they are down and out, and there is no point in trying to improve.

2. Newcomers--Newcomers without marketable skills or financial resources gravitate to the poverty areas. They are vulnerable to the humiliation and victimizations of the dregs left before them and a portion of these succumb to the temptations of disreputable poverty.

3. Skidders--those who have fallen from higher social standing; alcoholics, addicts, perverts and otherwise disturbed people who come to live in the run-down sections of the city.

4. The Infirm--Before age, illness, or injury made them infirm, these people belonged to other strata. Their downward shift may be physically moving to a disreputable neighborhood, but in most cases, the infirm stay put and the neighborhood moves out from under them. They slip due to some misfortune, aging the most common.

> The disreputable poor exist and persist now--due to Negro mobilization and when this has run its course, disreputable poverty will have used up its main capital and be reduced to squandering its main interest drawn from fractional selection. (7, p. 302)

In the group of "unstable poor" are those unskilled irregular workers who have become chronic in their dependence upon the assistance of others. Here too are the alcoholics, those addicted to drugs, those "lost" to the census taker, and those whose life style is characterized by debilitating hostility and agression. David Riesman, writing in collaboration with Nathan Glazer, observed this hostile group while conducting research into the relationship of character and politics in 1948-49.

> Inside as well as outside the interviews there is evidence of distrust: many of the respondents could not name anyone they trusted (either in politics or in private life), did not think it wise to trust people, did not have or care to have close friends, could not name qualities they liked in people as readily as qualities they disliked. Indeed, the romantic notion of lower-class solidarity and warmth has little factual basis in my observations in Harlem and elsewhere--Hobbes' war of all against all would be not much less accurate as a description. It should be remembered, of course, that I am speaking of the lower class--"lower-lower" in Warner's scale. (11, p. 84)

In trying to identify the "unstable poor" it may be helpful to relate this group to the "poor" or poverty group as a whole. Because the "unstable poor" are but a segment of the total poor, they must surely be less than twenty percent, the figure often used as a catch-all for the poverty population. Lee E. Dirks, whose article from The National Observer appears in New Perspectives on Poverty, comments, "One-eighth of all Americans live in families with incomes that qualify them for relief in their states." (2, p. 12) We have then as a guide 12 1/2 percent of all Americans who fall into the category of the hard core poor if Dirks is accurate in his judgment. This means that there are over 22 million Americans in the hard core poor group. This estimate almost equals the calculation of Herman P. Miller (23 1/2 million) of the number of persons whose family incomes are below the amounts needed to qualify for public assistance payments in each state. The concensus of the group is that the "unstable poor" comprise only a portion of Dirk's "hard core" classification.

The "unstable poor" in our society can neither be understood nor can their situation be fully comprehended from a middle class frame of reference. Middle class systems of values are not within the culture of these persons--with the possible exception of some of the aged in this group, and some of those who have regressed from a higher level.

The problem of counseling the youth from the "unstable poor" becomes even more complex when we discover that there are subgroups within the group as defined earlier by Matza. In referring to what he terms the "disreputable poor," he subdivides this group into four categories: Dregs, Newcomers, Skidders, and Infirm. There is no doubt but that we could classify and reclassify, label and re-label and at the same time accomplish little. It would seem to be more important to deal with each case on an individual basis.

III. IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

To counsel the youth from the "unstable poor," in all probability, is one of the greatest challenges facing the counselor. It would seem that the first major goal would be an attempt to assist the individual in restructuring his values. The counselor, in cooperation with others, such as social workers, visiting teachers, etc., will of necessity have to set his sights on assisting the inidivdual in achieving this goal. If the individual is ever to move from the "unstable poor" to a higher group, he must adopt a system of values more nearly like those of the group to which he aspires to move.

The difficulty in achieving this goal is compounded by the fact that the individual from this economic level is, in most cases, not seeking a new set of values. He probably is not even aware that there are values outside of his own frame of reference. Alcoholism, broken homes, drug addiction, delinquency, illegitimacy, unemployment, and its accompanying poverty are a part of his life.

According to Miller, "Poverty, in its truest sense, is more than mere want; it is want mixed with a lack of aspiration . . ." (8, p. 27) The key phrase here is "lack of aspiration." This in turn refers to what was mentioned earlier: incongruence of the individual's system of values as related to middle class society and economic levels. Another problem here is reflected in the case of individuals who have aspiration, but whose stated aspirations are unrealistic. An example of this could be the individual who aspires to a professional career but who may have

inadequate academic background and/or insufficient academic potential. The aim must be toward motivating the individual from the "unstable poor," not only to aspire toward a higher level, but toward a level that is within his capabilities. Here we encounter the very difficult task of making a truly valid assessment of this type of person's true potential.

In referring to the youth from poverty-ridden homes, Sheppard says,

> What is essential is the fact that most poverty-family youth are deprived of the broad range of experiences open to children from higher-income families, and that their limited imagery of the world makes it more difficult for them to succeed in one of the crucial springboards from poverty--the school . . . (12, p. 103)

It is quite likely that this factor is one least understood by educators. In our highly structured educational system, we have not provided for the needs of children from homes of the "unstable poor." We neither understand this group of children nor do we make a serious attempt to understand them and provide for their needs. They too often become the "push-outs" in our schools.

Sheppard substantiates the above thought by saying:

> . . . Placement at high school into one of three of four curriculums marks the final casting of the die for the student's entire future life. . . . Upper class experience provides students with a need for personal achievement that is expressed in their constant search for success. . . . On the other hand [the lowest class] adolescent has been subjected to a family and class culture in which failure, worry, and frustration are common. . . . (12, p. 104)

We can infer from the above quotation that a third major goal, insofar as the youth from the "unstable poor" are concerned, should be the development of a feeling of hope on the part of the individual. Realistic inspiration is not enough. The individual must feel there is a reasonable chance of his achieving his aspired goals. While school counselors occupy an extremely advantageous position in dealing with the

problems of the poor, they are limited in their effectiveness because of a lack of understanding and information.

Counselors are committed to assisting individuals. They are trained to recognize differences and similarities. Certainly similarities would seem to provide a more substantial foundation for the development of a "helping" relationship than would further emphasis on "differences." Programs which appeal to the basic needs which are common to all persons stand a better chance for success at the outset. This thought is reinforced by Gordon in his comments on identifying positive similarities.

Some Positive Characteristics of Disadvantaged Children

1. Selective motivation, creativity, and proficiency.
2. Complex symbolization in in-group language forms and ritual behavior.
3. Functional computational skills.
4. Accuracy of perception . . .
5. Selective recall, association, and generalization.
6. Capacity for meaningful and loyal personal relationships.
7. Capacity for meaningful involvement . . .
8. Ingeniousness and resourcefulness in the pursuit of self-selected goals . . . (4, p. 194-195)

Many school districts have undertaken programs to accomplish the task of providing experiences and assistance which are designed to redirect the thinking of individuals. An example of this approach is a program at Fulton, Missouri, financed under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Approximately $80,000 has been authorized to establish a program of "home guidance" for pupils who may fall within the "unstable poor" or who evidence such traits as poor attendance, discipline, academic deficiency and poor attitude, etc.

The current national attack on poverty is not being conducted in the narrow sense of raising the level of living of the poor, as was the

case in the thirties. . . . The feeling now seems to be that something new must be done to change the attitudes of the poor--ignorance, incompetence, apathy, despair. Seligman again puts his finger on the "tempo of these times" in dealing with the problem of the poor. (12, p. 104) Counselors must become aware of the scope, significance, and depth of the deprivation which is producing this seemingly unending problem. Some of the programs which should be considered in working with our unstable poor are described in the key guidelines below:

1. Organize special guidance programs at the primary level, stressing group as well as individual counseling.

2. Learn about the cultural and social class background of minority groups, as well as the effects of discrimination and segregation on the personality development of minority students.

3. Provide for cultural and occupational exposures identified with success models to help inspire and develop positive concepts.

4. Counsel students and parents and involve the community in vocational and educational opportunitites in an effort to stimulate motivation for success.

5. Use test data with caution; also use a variety of data--performance aptitude, observations, discussion, etc.--to identify the capacities of disadvantaged students.

6. Initiate talent search programs, such as gifted underachievers, and employ all available financial aid for continuing education through and beyond high school. (6)

In an effort to reach the people in the poverty areas, the government has instituted the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. This act

was the beginning of the war on poverty. It represents a commitment to eliminate the causes and consequences of poverty in this nation. The basis of the act is that the country cannot reach its full social and economic potential unless every person has the opportunity to contribute and participate to the best of his ability.

The act leans heavily to the education and training of youth. In some respects, the program recognized that there is an unstable group of people in society. The Manpower Development and Training Act bypassed many of the "unstable poor" in that they are unable to qualify for the training. Aptitude tests were given and those chosen were required to pass the selective tests.

The Community Action Program has been developed to encourage people to improve their environment. It provides for assistance in employment, job training, welfare, and remedial education. This program appears to recognize the characteristics of the "unstable" group. The success of this venture cannot be determined at this time. However, the Federationist' published by the AFL-CIO is enthusiastic about the program. The unique feature of the program is that all of the local agencies are encouraged to take part in the joint effort. The "poor" themselves by law must have a part in determining what their needs are, what programs will work best, and what techniques are most likely to bring the desired results. It is anticipated that by 1967, 100,000 people will be employed in the program. Of this number, most will be drawn from the ranks of the poor themselves. (1) A partial listing of governmental programs follows:

1. Elementary and Secondary Education Act

2. Vocational Education Act

3. Manpower Training Act (MDTA)

4. Area Redevelopment Act

5. Neighborhood Youth Corps

6. Community Action Programs

All of these have implications that could include the "unstable poor" class as noted by Miller. These programs, for the most part, are designed to meet a need of a certain age group or of a particular neighborhood or community, without directly recognizing Miller's definition.

The Harrington definition of the poor and the groups he lists refer to the Miller conditions for classification, but again there are variances of definition. Perhaps the differences of definition are due largely to the terminology utilized by sociologists.

IV. SUMMARY

Economists differ in their definitions and classifications of poverty, and there seems to be a great deal of ambiguity when it comes to the job of defining poverty. Each writer in the area uses terms which may be meaningful to him, but are only confusing to us in that many of them mean the same thing. David Matza, in his paper "The Disreputable Poor," found in Class, Status and Power (Bendix and Lipset) writes that in a fruitless effort to reduce the stigma, disreputable poverty has undergone many name changes in the past 200 years. In a few years, the term "hard-to-reach" will be considered stigmatizing, and there is little doubt that we shall eventually refer to the disreputable poor as "exceptional families." (7, p. 291)

Sargent Shriver says that other economists, viewing the problem in world-wide terms, have classified poverty as (1) collective, (2) cyclical, and (3) individual.(13)

The "unstable poor" is a collection or may be considered the hopper, containing the residue of poverty which remains as people, individuals and families move up and down within Miller's four-cell structure.

We believe that Matza's four classifications will enable us to better understand Miller's "the unstable poor." Matza says that the disreputable poor ("unstable poor") are the least educated and the least interested in education. They feel they are "down and out" and there is no point in trying to improve.

As we have mentioned above, Miller's term "unstable poor" can mean a lot of things to different people. It would seem to us that to make it more meaningful to those of us in counseling it should be expanded. In the diagram on the following page we have tried to do this.

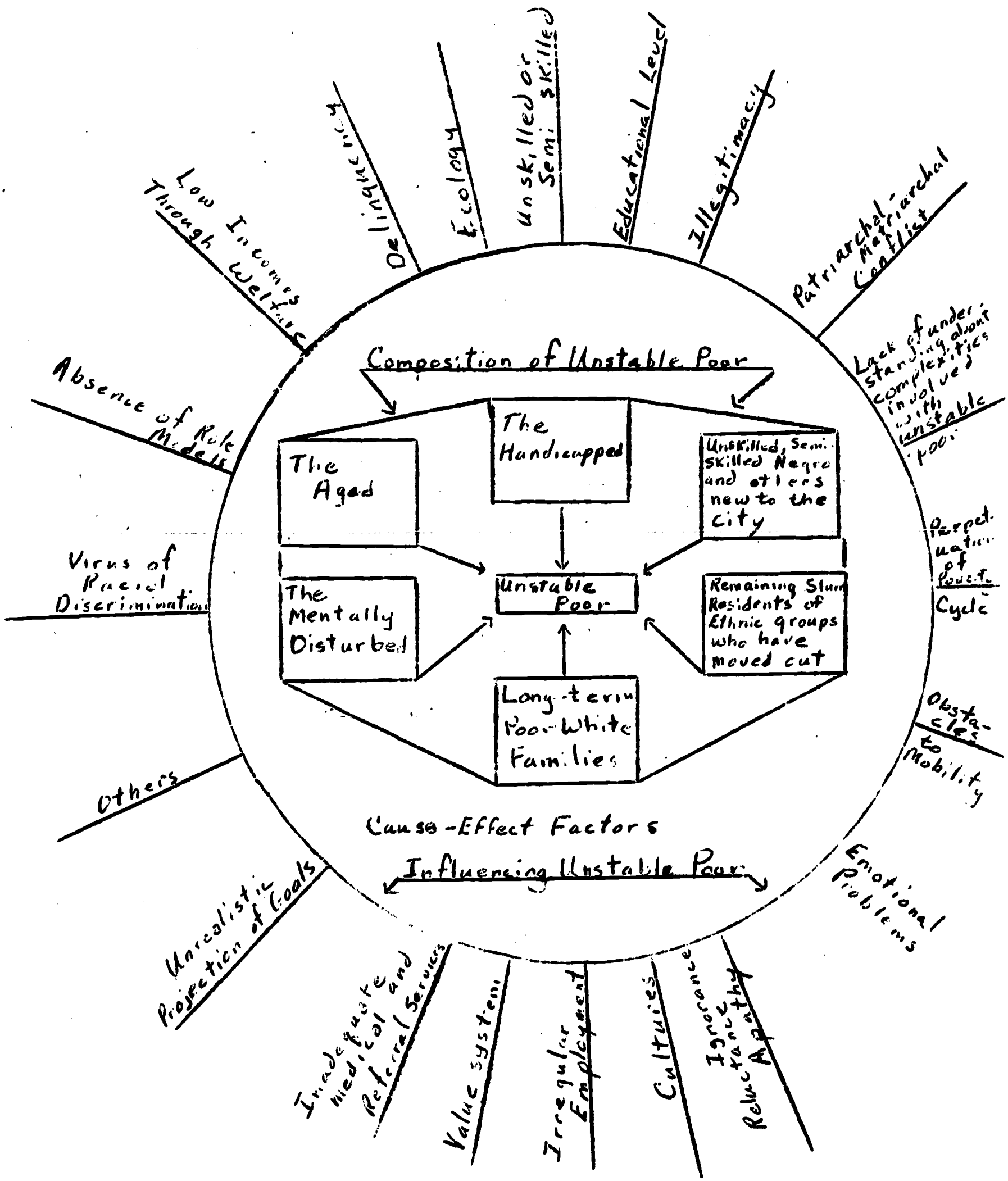
We started with the "unstable poor" at the base; we then attempted to identify several of the groups most commonly referred to as the "unstable poor." The groups are found in the blocks surrounding the base. We have by no means included all of the groups which should be mentioned. We are satisfied there are others, perhaps many others. The groups listed, however, represent an adequate selection of the types of people found within the "unstable poor."

The circle surrounding the groups is used to represent the cause-effect factors which influence the "unstable poor." Notice that the circle does not touch any one block. This was done to show that any one group might be influenced by one, two, or more different cause-effect factors.

A schematic diagram such as this seemed to our group a useful tool in identifying and counseling students within the "unstable poor."

The diagram shows several types of people who will all have to be counseled differently. It also pictures many of the factors which will have to be taken into consideration when working with these students.

We realize the diagram does not cover every possible element involved. It does, however, give a logical, understandable, extension of a previously nebulous grouping.


Composition of Unstable Poor
The Aged
The Handicapped
Unskilled, Semi-skilled Negro and others new to the City
The Mentally Disturbed
Unstable Poor
Remaining Slum Residents of Ethnic groups who have moved out
Long-term Poor-White Families
Cause-Effect Factors
Influencing Unstable Poor
Low Income Through Welfare
Dependency
Ecology
Unskilled or Semi Skilled
Educational Level
Illegitimacy
Patriarchal-Matriarchal Conflict
Lack of understanding about complexities involved with unstable poor
Perpetuation of Poverty Cycle
Obstacles to Mobility
Emotional Problems
Ignorance Reluctance Apathy
Cultures
Irregular Employment
Value system
Inadequate medical and Referral Services
Unrealistic Projection of Goals
Others
Virus of Racial Discrimination
Absence of Role Models

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. American Federation of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organizations. Federationist. Washington, D. C., April 1966.

2. Dirks, Lee E. "The Poor Who Live Among Us." Reprinted from The National Observer in Shostak and Gomberg, New Perspectives on Poverty. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.

3. Galbraith, John K. The Affluent Society. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1958.

4. Gordon, Edmund W. "Counseling and Guidance for Disadvantaged Youth," Guidance and the School Dropout. Daniel Schreiber and Bernard Kaplan, editors. Washington, D. C.: N. E. A. and A. P. G. A., 1964.

5. Harrington, Michael. The Other America. Baltimore: Penguin Books, Inc., 1963.

6. Lowe, Ruth B. California Teacher's Association Journal. March 1965.

7. Matza, David. "The Disreputable Poor," Class, Status and Power. Reinhard Bendix and Seymour Martin Lipset, editors. New York: The Free Press, 1966, pp. 289-302.

8. Miller, Herman P. "The Dimensions of Poverty," in Poverty as a Public Issue, Ben B. Seligman, editor. New York: The Free Press, 1965.

9. Miller, S. M. "The American Lower Classes: A Typological Approach," New Perspectives on Poverty. Arthur B. Shostak and William Gomberg, editors. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.

10. Moynihan, Daniel P. The Negro Family. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

11. Riesman, David. Faces in the Crowd. Abridged Edition. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1965.

12. Sheppard, Harold L. "The Young Who Are Poor," Poverty as a Public Issue. Ben B. Seligman, editor. New York: The Free Press, 1965.

13. Shriver, Sargent. Poverty. Reprinted from the Encyclopedia Americana, 1965.

RESOURCE PERSONS

Dr. Robert W. Habenstein, Professor, Department of Sociology, University of Missouri.

Mrs. Ann Johnson, Director of Greater Kansas City Scholarship Corporation, Kansas City Board of Education, 1211 McGee, Kansas City, Missouri.

Dr. Peter K. Manning, Professor, Department of Sociology, University of Missouri.

Dean William Perlmutter, Kent State University, Ohio.

Dr. Ann Pruitt, Western Reserve, Cleveland, Ohio.

South Dakota Representative, Ben Riefel, Washington, D. C.

St. Louis Board of Education, Dr. Sam Sheppard, District Superintendent of Schools.

Professor Ralph Wenrich, Vocational Education and Practical Arts, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

TRAINING INSTITUTE FOR VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

AND COUNSELING PERSONNEL

July 22, 1966

THE STRAINED

SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS AND RELATIONSHIP

TO VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

by

Bob Stinson - Chairman
Gerald Ross - Secretary
Lyle Evenson
Gerald Quinn
Walter Redmon
Leo Scott
Leonard Timmerman
Roger Webb
Charles Wright
John Zeug

THE STRAINED

SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS AND RELATIONSHIP TO VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Introduction

The family is the basic social organization in our society today. Many sociological concepts make up this basic unit. Two of the most important are economic status and familial stability. Recent trends have placed great emphasis upon the economic status of the family because of the ever enlarging "underpriviledged" or "poverty-stricken" group in our society. Government programs have given a more encompassing view of the underpriviledged than has previously been recognized. S. M. Miller has used economic status and familial stability to categorize the poverty-stricken segment of our population. He has identified four types of "poor" by combining the economic status and familial stability dimensions, then dichotomizing this indicator into a "high" (security) and a "low" (insecurity). These four categories are the stable poor, the strained, the copers, and the unstable. (6, pp. 22-39) The objective of this paper will be to examine the category of "the strained" grouping and relate it to vocational guidance and education.

Miller's category of the "strained" represents a pattern of secure economic status but unstable familial relation. It can be assumed that the families falling under the "strained" classification are those in the upper area of the low income group. The incomes are low but sufficient for moderate subsistence. Although this group is made up of many different types of people, different races, different creeds, etc., one element is constant, that is, their interpersonal relations and family problems interact with the economic element to create a serious strain upon the individuals who make up the family unit. Miller states that this may become a life cycle problem, one in which at certain points the family of the low-wage, unskilled worker are likely to exhibit an unstable pattern. The category of the "strained" may be considered one of great transition for as the family of the low-wage earner strives for a better life, their frustrations tend to interact creating serious interpersonal problems in the family, thus subjecting the wage earner to still more pressure. The pressure may be manifested either in raising the family into a better income and living standard or lowering (skidding) the family into a permanent position of poverty.

The classification of Miller's is quite recent and has not been substantiated by research at this time. Thus a survey of literature contributes very little. Identification

of this group and the relationship of the "strained" to vocational guidance will be based upon the literature available and the personal experiences of the authors. An attempt is made to identify the members of the group by the problem area which interacts with the economic factor to place them in the classification of the "strained."

The Strained

One group who falls into the classification of the "strained" is that of the family who belongs to a minority group and who because of his race, nationality, or religion is subjected to a low economic status. The largest group to be considered is that of the slum Negro. (7, pp. 172-216) The unskilled worker is delegated to an income which while sufficient for his needs offers little or no advancement and uncertainty of continuous employment. The family usually exists upon the incomes of both the husband and wife. The Negro community is basically matrifocal which encourages an unstable pattern of family life style. The matrifocal family organization is made up of a strong mother who is the focus of authority. The husbans is either not around or is one of a series of husbands. Many times the mother is the breadwinner or at least a contributer. Her mother often acts in the role of baby sitter to the children. The husband may, in some cases, be the bread-winner, but he still assumes a subordinate role. The

children controlled by the mother, have little or no respect for the father or husband, and without his presence, there is no constant male model in the household. Thus many of the mores and attitudes of these young people may be weakened and their role within the family unit becomes insecure and undefined.

Family members must compete continually for recognition, and cooperation is lacking. Aspirations are high for the children, and in most instances are unrealistic. The great desire by the family for the child to succeed is apparently a type of collective delusion that never seems to come to pass. Once the child gets out of the home into the peer group, all familial loyalties are replaced by peer loyalties. Whatever the group considers right, fair or moral are the basis of personal morals, usually replacing what few were taught in the home.

The case of Sally typifies the "strained" Negro. Sally, a high school senior, has average or better intelligence. She performs relatively well academically in school, is a good citizen, and is well thought of. Her mother wants her to go to college and "make something of herself." For her to go to college will be a tremendous sacrifice and hardship for her family but they want it for her. The father has two jobs, one as a parking lot attendent and another as a part time bartender. He is a mild mannered man and not particularly missed at home. Her mother works

part time as a cleaning lady. She is the dominant figure in the home.

Sally has gone with a boy of a lower status. He was illegitimate and not considered in the same class with Sally, as far as her mother is concerned. The young man joined the Marines and is about to be shipped to Viet Nam. Sally, feeling completely overwhelmed by her mother, strikes back by dating a "college boy" that her mother approves of. Soon Sally finds that she is pregnant by the college boy and reluctantly tells her mother. The mother accepts this fact relatively well but when Sally refuses to marry a boy she barely knows, her mother is furious.

When the boy friend comes home on leave and finds Sally is pregnant, he insists that they marry immediately and after much protest from her family, they are married.

Now the real frustration and unstable home relations take shape. The family is faced with the disappointment in the girl and the unrealized dreams for her, plus the disgrace of a baby which comes too soon and the knowledge that others know the identity of the father. They must face the fact that they aren't different from the "niggers" as they refer to the others of their race. Sally is six months pregnant, married to a boy in a combat zone, a father who can give her no moral help, a sister and brother who don't care and a dominering mother who no longer speaks to her because she married below her station.

Another example of a minority group living in the "strained" economic area, but quite different in culture from the Negro, is the American Indian. Generally speaking, the Indians of North Central America have a very low standard of living. (4, pp. 3-28) Even with the subsidies provided by the Federal government, a great number choose to live in their own primitive ways. Many who have been provided moderate living facilities still prefer to live in sod houses or tents; they cook out of doors; they lack sanitation measures; and they live on insufficient diets. Federal funds have been allotted to assist the Indian in an attempt to change both his attitude and his cultural values. While man's instability may be a carry over from an earlier period, in the study of the American Indian, all phases of his spiritual, economic, moral and political aspects of life must be included.

The pattern of the American Indian contrasts with that of the Negro in that there is a strong familial structure. The ideas and teachings of the family are all important. Many Indian parents have not encouraged their children to attend school, feeling that they can do a much better job of teaching their children the skills involved as well as proper habits of work. There is a pattern of tradition rather than change in the reservation Indian. Graduates of college have returned feeling discouraged and resentful. "The life is too lonely" they say, "people were unfriendly

or even insulting," "Indians are kept out of good jobs." The government recognizes the need of acculturation for the problems of the Indian and his economic stability lie in the process of incorporating Indian groups into national life. Although the Indian may be in a strained poor status, his main problem lies not with education, job availability, or peer influence, but with his environment and culture. He shows skidding tendencies.

As an example, a male member of an Indian tribe, located on an Indian reservation of North Dakota attended and graduated from a university. He held a degree in Business Administration and worked with the Bureau of Indian Affairs. He also directed and played in a dance band as an avocation. His economic position was that of middle class.

Within two years after his return from college he had assumed some of the practices in which many of the members of the tribe engaged: over-indulgence in alcoholic beverages, absenteeism from work, and irresponsibility. He was relieved of his position and now exists on the monthly allotments furnished by the Federal Government. Environment has had its influence.

Another case is that of John, a fifteen-year-old boy enrolled in an urban high school of nine hundred. He had enrolled from a school of forty with a predominately Indian enrollment. Scholastically he ranked with the best in his class

John was a slim, handsome, and athletic young man, closely resembling the features of his Indian mother rather than his white father. Since he was the only Indian boy in the school every attempt was made by students and faculty to accept him in classes as well as atheletic events. John would attend school for two or three days and then disappear for the remainder of the week. In contacting the parents, it was discovered he had consistently walked back to the reservation fifty miles away. After repeated returns to school, the father, who's place of occupation was in the city, finally became disgusted and sent the boy to the mother's people on the reservation.

Another example of the strained poor is the family who through choice or circumstances is thrown from a stable economic area into one of extremely lower status. This is the family who is a member of the strained poor through divorce or death of one of the parents. The problem of this family is mainly one in which the mother is the head of the family. (8, p. 61) She is untrained and probably has never held a job in her life until the strains of marriage prove too much and a divorce is decided upon. In 1962, 31.8 percent of all families were headed by women. (9, p. 20) The income of the family is relatively secure, but is low due to her lack of training. It is usually quite lower than when the family was headed by the father. The age-old problem of the working mother manifests itself but

complicates itself with the fact that the mother is now a single woman. The mother finds continued frustration as she attempts to make a living, rear children, and have a normal emotional and physical existence of her own without a man as the head of the household. Her frustrations contribute to the emotional instability of her children who have already been through the ordeal of bitterness and destruction caused by the divorce. She is very vulnerable to skidding into the unstable poor category due basically to the possibility of her just "giving up." The problems of the widow are similar, with sorrow replacing the bitterness.

Jan's promiscuity is quite understandable when she finds her still young, attractive, yet terribly frustrated mother seeking gratification anywhere she can find it. Jan is sixteen, a rather poor student, but very attractive, especially to the boys in her class. Her two brothers and her sister make home an unhappy place for her since she must accept the responsibility for them while her mother works. Her mother's salary covers necessities but the monthly hassel over child support means more unpleasantness. The fact that the father who was her idol has disowned his children for the children of his second wife leaves her in a strictly matriarchial family. Her aspirations are not high and her chances for emotional and physical deterioration are excellent.

Other problem areas must be considered in the identification of the "strained" poor. Most of these areas contrast with the previous stated categories in that they are temporary in nature. These groups are characterized by economic environment emphasis rather than strictly familial instability, environmental or cultural influence. The interaction of problems facing the family group whose breadwinner is thrown from a moderate income level to a low income level places the family among the strained poor. In today's society, the problems of the displaced unskilled or semi-skilled worker have been recognized by all phases of our economy. The plight of the worker who wakes up to find his job performed by a machine, is well known. The worker who depends upon nature for his livelihood may suddenly find that he has been dealt an economic blow. The coal miner who faces unemployment because of the exhausted mine, the citrus worker whose crop freezes, the farm hand replaced by mechanized equipment are all examples of the potential "strained" poor.

The pattern of the "strained" poor has great significance in evaluating the reason for the school drop out and in establishing effective means to combat a situation that has far reaching economic and social implications. (2, pp. 36-37) The drop out may come from any type of background but when interviewed for reasons relating to their dropping out of school, a constant pattern of a problem of interpersonal

relations, whether it be with parents, siblings, peers, or teachers which they can't overcome, is observed. The situation seems to reflect in many instances, the unstable family situation of those categorized as the strained.

Many educators as well as laymen stereotype the dropout as one of low ability and aptitude. Such is not the case. Studies of dropouts have shown that an average of their I.Q.'s would fall within the median range and that many have an I.Q. which would enable them to enter and graduate from college. Economic theorists might agree with those who say they drop out of schools because of a lack of funds. However, the incidence of cars owned by dropouts negates this as a real reason for dropping out.

Cervantes says of the family of the dropout,

> A law of polarization evidenced in the parent-youth world of today is that the dropout is the product, generally speaking, of an inadequate family situation and the graduate is a product of an adequate family. The proletariat of tomorrow springs from the loins of a disintegrate family. The family which matured the youth who did not continue his education is of a different calibre than that which produced the teen-ager who continued his education at least into his eighteenth year. (2, pp. 36-37)

The dropout, as an unskilled worker, destined to a minimal wage, dissatisfied with his position due to his ability, typifies the potential "strained" poor.

A series of contrasting family groups have been presented to show that the strained poor appear in many different

cultural environments. One ethnic group created frustration because the family was in a state of deterioration while another group's strained situation was a result of the culture and environment not becoming integrated with today's society. Lack of good interpersonal relations resulted in the disintegration of the family in another group. Economic reverses, natural phenomenon, and automation all created patterns of a temporary nature, pushing their victims into the strained poor category.

Implications

The strained poor present perhaps a greater challenge to the vocational counselor than do the other three groups outlined by Miller. Since the economic factors are not the prime cause of difficulty with these young people, the counselor must first consider the problems placing the family in a strained position. The Indian boy who can not bear to leave the reservation, will gain little from the occupational handouts placed in his hand by his counselor. Before vocational guidance can be of value to these people, some rather involved, personal counseling must take place. With the "strained," vocational counseling is the last step in helping establish a stable, satisfactory life.

Experience seems to show that a feeling of helplessness surrounds this youngster. He wishes to be independent, but has little or no experience with this concept. Peer pressures,

familial discontent and lack of ego strength all combine to make this young person a very difficult yet very challenging counselee. His aspirations are not high, his educational skills may be lacking, and his desire to succeed in school is probably low. However, when a vocational counselor can look at this person and know that through his understanding this young person will have a better life, he is thankful for his own skill and training.

The first main implication would be that the counselor must know his people. He must know and understand the culture from which they have evolved. He must have an adequate knowledge of the physical environment and technical level including their resources, potentialities, and deficiencies. He must have an adequate knowledge of the organization of the family, and the problems of the home and community. He must also have an adequate knowledge of the mentality of the group, their history, culture, religious beliefs, and emotional reactions. Counselors cannot hope to succeed in helping in these areas without extensive study and planning.

In the problem area of the Indian, school programs are now in existence that include modern, educational facilities, with qualified teachers, counselors and administrative staff. Teaching tools and equipment for both educational and vocational training are utilized. The Committee for Cultural Action states:

> It is a question not merely of teaching a few skills and techniques, but rather of arousing the interest of the Indians, winning their adherence to the new conception of life offered them , and inducing them to acquire through their own judiciously guided effort, new skills and techniques.

Can the vocational counselor aid in this effort without adequate knowledge of the people he serves?

A further implication is that the counselor cannot expect all people to accept our middle class values. Americans with middle class standing are apt to put too much emphasis on the values of success, splendor, or grandeur and forget that little things in life such as sincerity, humility, and hope are values. Though these are important to all, they are especially significant in the eyes of the poor. The counselor must accept these people on their own level whether he approves of them or their behavior. His position is to give as much aid as possible, not sit in judgment. He must go where the poor are--be available to them. The student who is reluctant to come to an office for help may be quite receptive in the hall or somewhere on his own ground. His attitude frequently suggests that the counselor has other things more important to attend to than his personal troubles.

Quite often the influence of the peer group is forgotten or classified as insignificant in dealing with problem areas of the poor. (5,) Counselors should recognize that although the peer group has an impact upon all classes of society, it has far more emphasis with the poor than with other classes. Peer group influences for the strained poor

likely results in downward skidding though it is acknowledged that the reverse of this could be true. As the child progresses in school, the influence of the peer group increases reaching a peak in the adolescent years. The parents, teachers, and counselors recognize early that their values and teachings are in competition with the peer group values. The wise educator or counselor is aware of these peer groups, of their negative and positive influences, and uses these groups to obtain recognized goals.

Recommendations

1. In order for the counselor to assist members of the poverty strained group, he must be aware of probable factors or combining factors that cause poverty.
   a. lack of ability to achieve training or education
   b. lack of opportunities for training or education
   c. lack of knowledge of opportunities for education and training
   d. lack of motivation to seek or accept training or education
   e. lack of opportunities to use education or training after it has been obtained (discrimination.
2. The counselor cannot cure all social ills. He must apply his skill to the immediate problem and to the individual but show awareness of the overall pattern.

3. The counselor must use the service of all referral agencies such as mental hygiene clinics, state welfare agencies, family and children's services, child guidance centers, public health clinics, and many other United Fund agencies.
4. The counselor must be familiar with the state and federal laws dealing with the war on poverty. He must know the programs available and how they best work for the welfare of his client.
5. The counselor should employ those methods most expediant to the size and variety of his clients. He should recognize the value of group counseling, particularly in the area of vocational literature surveys, etc.
6. The administration should recognize the amount of counseling time necessary in dealing with the strained poor and should grant more counseling time with a lower counselor-client ratio. They should further recognize the value of personal counseling in dealing with the plight of the strained poor.
7. The administration should recognize that the elementary years should be the starting area in introducing the strained poor to the world of work. Handing out pamphlets with a high school diploma is useless.

8. The counselor should call on such people as the sociologist, psychologist, and the economist to prepare himself in planning solutions to the problems presented by the strained poor.
9. An educational and/or vocational program should embrace all of the aspects of national life and should have the minimum goal of making useful citizens by providing them sufficient technical or vocational training.
10. One of the most common errors in vocational education has been considering only one aspect of the problem. The counselor must correct this by incorporating all facets of the problem in working with both the student and the parents in an attempt to transform the way of life of the community rather than just the individual.
11. Teacher training institutions should expand curriculums to include experiences relative to the understanding of how to best teach students coming from poor homes with strained style of life patterns. In addition, all persons engaged in public school work should profit through participation in realistic and effective inservice programs directed toward providing equal opportunities to succeed, within an individual's limits, to all students.
12. Schools should endeavor to integrate peer groups whenever possible. Grouping policies that tend

to place children of the so-called "same ability" together should be examined with a great deal of scrutiny. While it may be easier on the teacher, is it doing the student harm?

Conclusion

In many ways it appears that the "strained" poor as differentiated from the stable, coper, and unstable is the most dynamic group and contains the elements necessary for upward mobility as well as attitudes both quantitative and qualitative that are generally present in downward mobility. This group then is in a stage of transition, and the youngsters involved are in a quandary. Since the school is society's best instrument in providing for the welfare of youth, the challenge is put upon us. When a vocational counselor takes the time and effort necessary to keep one young man in school, when economic factors and family problems interact to prevent his graduation, vocational guidance has proved its worth and has earned its place in education.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Beatty, Willard W. Education for Cultural Change. U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1953.

2. Cervantes, Lucius F. The Dropout. University of Michigan Press, 1965.

3. Chinoy, Ely. Automobile Workers and the American Dream. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1955.

4. Committee for Cultural Action. Study on the Basis of an Educational Policy that Will Take Into Consideration the Problems Arising From the Process of Incorporating Indian or Other Minority Groups into National Life. Department of Cultural Affairs, Pan American Union, Washington, D.C., 1953.

5. Gans, Herbert J. The Urban Villagers. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1965.

6. Miller, S.M. "The American Lower Classes; a Topological Approach." Article in New Perspectives on Poverty. Prentice Hall Spectrum Books, 1965.

7. Rainwater, Lee. "The Crucible of Identity." Article in Daedalus. Journal of the Academy of Arts and Sciences, winter 1966.

8. Moynihan, D. The Negro Family: The Case for National Action. U. S. Department of Labor, U.S. Government Printing Office.

9. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports. Figures are for March and April 1962.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF VOCATIONAL PERCEPTIONS AS A PSYCHOLOGICAL DIMENSION OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

A Report

Submitted in

Partial Fulfillment of the Course Requirements

of Guidance 400

by

William Erpenbach - Chairman
Frank Downhour - Secretary

Walter Adams	Lester Foote
John R. Banning	David L. Looney
Reynold Erickson	Leo S. Scott
Walter Flannery	L.H. Timmerman

July 1966

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	Statement of the Problem	1
	Purpose	1
	Delineations	2
II.	REVIEW OF BASIC FACTS	3
	Theories for Developing Perception in Vocational Decision-Making	3
	Deterrents or Facilitators to Vocational Development and Adjustment	13
	Culturally and Socially Perceived Roles	15
	Individual and Group Readiness in Vocational Development	20
III.	IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL COUNSELING	22
	Ways of Developing Accurate and Realistic Vocational Perceptions	22
	Statement of Reasonable Goals for Vocational Counseling	24
	Local Programs	25
	State and National Programs	28
IV.	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	30
	Summary	30
	Conclusions	30
	Recommendations	31
V.	BIBLIOGRAPHY	35

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

A generally accepted goal for guidance and counseling in our schools is to assist students in the process of making wise educational and occupational decisions. Recognition has been given to the importance of vocations in the lives of individuals, since a person's vocation determines to a great degree his way of life and his relationships with other people.

Tests and other instruments have been devised to help the student develop self-understanding and thus assist in the process of vocational decision-making. However, as counselors have acquired more experience and understanding, there has also been a growing recognition of the need for a more extensive means of assessing individual potential. It has become obvious also that the counselor needs to understand the many forces which act as facilitators or deterrents to vocational development, if he is to truly serve in a helping relationship.

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to provide information for all who are interested in helping youth develop accurate and realistic vocational perceptions through counseling and

other techniques in light of both internal and external resources. In this paper "internal resources" refer to the individual's abilities, aptitudes, attitudes and other resources coming from within. "External resources" refer to those opportunities, demands and expectations that may not be within the control of the individual, such as those resulting from socio-economic phenomena.

In order to facilitate career development, effective vocational guidance must take account of the values and goals of the individual as well as his right and responsibility for self-decision. This is best accomplished by helping the individual to understand more accurately both himself and his environment.

Delineations

In approaching the psychological dimension of perceptual development our concerns will be concentrated on those aspects that relate to the theoretical basis for vocational guidance and the various approaches that may be utilized for the optimum development of vocational perceptions. We will not include use of standardized test data or the actual decision-making process as they relate to perceptual development or the ensuing reality testing process.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF BASIC FACTS

Theories for Developing Perception in Vocational Decision-Making

It is easy to underestimate the value of theory, especially in a culture dominated by a spirit of pragmatism, none the less it is expedient that theory be given proper place as the rational structure that provides meaning, order and priority to the activity in any venture. In guidance, theory is needed to explain its nature and to serve as a guide for action, and the collection of facts, and to be used as the means for the discovery of new knowledge. As may be expected when we consider theory or as in this case, vocational development theory we are faced with a number of important considerations. It will be the purpose of this section to review some of the important considerations that relate to vocational development and to suggest their relevance to the development of vocational perceptions. This review will involve reference to not only theories of vocational development but of necessity must include a look at the related theories of guidance, psychology, learning and to some extent to philosophical conceptions of the nature of man.

The present status of theory in the field of guidance has a recent and interesting history. According to Ginzberg

(1751), counselors have operated for many years with little that could be called theory. (27, p. 153) Later, Super (1953), stated that we have an implicit theory of individual differences but that it was not explicit or even adequate. (27, p. 153) In the following few years, theory building apparently abounded because Wrenn (1959) indicates a need for fewer but better theories. (27, p. 154) More recently, Super (1964) states that guidance theory has still "not attained sufficient maturity and stability to withstand the onslaught of new theories of personality and behavior." (27, p. 150) Engle (1963) further clarifies this situation by stating, "It would appear that there is no scaricity of psychological theories that are applicable to the business of guidance, albeit the applicability has in many cases not been worked out." (27, p. 123) This is especially true as Goethals (1963) points out concerning an important source of non-directive guidance theory that, "The contributions of the field theorist . . . have never sufficiently been organized and been made a part of the theoritical thinking of guidance." (27, p. 134)

The contemporary picture then of guidance theory depicts a very rapid moving, yet unstable situation. Still, many of the theories that would be included in these statements have been and are helpful. They are perhaps limited in many respects but it may be out of their accumulated wisdom that an adequate theory of vocational development and of guidance may eventually emerge. Super (1964) relates

this concern when he states,

> Guidance needs to develop, or make use of, a theory of human behavior which successfully synthesizes what we now know about the cognitive and conative, the intellectual and emotional foundations of behavior and development. (27, p. 156)

Perhaps one of the major difficulties of most theories of vocational development, as well as guidance, is that they appear to offer some help until one has the opportunity to think them through and find answers to only part of his concerns. The theory, as several pieces of a jig-saw puzzle may fit together, and still not form the total picture. This is the caution that Volsky (1963) raises when he says, "Current theorizing relative to vocational development must by definition be sub-theory within some total concept of human development." (27, p. 142) This poses a pertinent question regarding the theories of vocational development in common use today. Are the theoretical consturcts of Ginzberg, Roe, Holland, Super and Tiedeman actual extensions of a total psychological frame work or are they ends in themselves?

Another consideration to be accounted for when considering theory regarding the development of vocational perceptions is the new respectability for reason apparent in education. Perception studies have contributed to significant advances in learning theory, having been discussed under the following titles, "cognitive preferences," "cognitive styles" and "styles of learning." Bruner (1962) in this same vein calls

our attention to an important point when he wrote,

> I think that any close observer of the educational scene would admit that over the past forty years there has been little direct influence of learning theory on the actual conduct of education. The theoretical issues . . . centered around conceptions of the nervous system or conceptions about the growth of personality. (these theories are) descriptive, concerned with what happens when learning occurs. The psychology of learning has only been tangentially concerned, until very recently, with the optimal means of causing learning to occur. (8, pp. 4-5)

What Bruner is talking about is the process of education and the need for "structure." This involves the use of reason in organizing knowledge into more understandable and more functional modes, that is to say, packaging it more appropriately for optimum learning. (9) The combined thrust of curriculum reform and the new role of "reason" has had a decided effect on learning theory creating a need for additional theory in the area of instruction. (8, pp. 4-5) It may no longer be reasonable to excuse ourselves as educators on the grounds that certain students are "culturally different" or are not "ready" to learn. In light of this new emphasis on reason, perhaps the question to be asked here is , what effect will emphasis on reason as a means of learning and the corresponding shift to more humanized curriculum have on our concern for developing vocational perceptions? The answer should take into consideration evidence on "cognitive styles" and the process of education described by Bruner. (9)

Another consideration to take into account as we review

theories of vocational development relates to conceptualizations about the nature of man. What we need to be concerned with here is the contribution of philosophy to vocational development theory, especially the impact of the new thinking of existentialism. Super (1957) discusses the origin of theories of guidance and mentions only two basic sources, "true reasoning" which is more or less the directive approach and the other, the non-directive approach. The problem as he recognized it, was in the kind of synthesis that could be made of these differing points of view. (26, p. 195) These divergent points of view have their roots in Behaviorism and Psychoanalysis which are better known today as Neo-behaviorism and Neo-psychoanalysis. Present-day "self-theory" which is the basic rational for the non-directive approaches is an outgrowth of psychoanalytic thought. (35, pp. 56-57) It seems significant that in 1957 Super recognized what are essentially the origins of both directive and non-directive counseling theory but he did not mention extentialism as having relevance for guidance. Allport in an article entitled "Psychological Models for Guidance" discusses three models, the third, "Man: Being in the Process of Becoming," consists of an existential approach to guidance. (29, pp. 373-381) Beck (1963) in a book, Philosophical Foundations of Guidance makes a more comprehensive case for existentialism. Blocker (1966) in a text book for counselor education makes reference to

existentialism as a basis for guidance theory. (5) Coming closer to our concern, Simons (1966) has an article in the Personnel and Guidance Journal entitled "An Existential View of Vocational Development." (23, pp. 604-610) This shift in philosophical foundations raises an important consideration. Would it not be advisable to re-examine our philosophical commitments in the light of recent thinking in order to develop a more meaningful basis for efforts in guidance. Our concepts on the nature of man lead to different approaches to meeting his needs.

There are several theories of vocational development presently being used in the field of guidance and referred to in the literature. Bordin (1963) suggests a classification scheme that is helpful. He states,

> All theories of occupational life take either one or both of two views of the individual, the structural and the developmental. The structural view analyzes occupations within some framework for conceiving personality organization, choosing its terms from the framework. The developmental view attempts to portray the kinds of shaping experiences that can account for personality organization and concomitant vocational pattern. (6, p. 157)

Grouping some of the present theories in this framework would result in placing Roe and Holland near the structural side and Ginzberg, Miller and Form, Callis, Baer and Roeber, and Super on the developmental side. Bordin places Teideman within the developmental classification which if correct needs additional clarification because his approach is markedly different than the others grouped with him on the developmental side. (6, p. 157)

Tiedeman is one of the more recent theory builders. In a recent paper (1964) he identifies the progenitors of career development as studies of success, adjustment and interests. These were prevelent prior to 1950. The next phase consisted of a period of vocational development theory ranging from about the 1950's through the early 1960's. He sees this stage in the development of occupational psychology issuing into a third period of career development psychology where we are today. (28, pp. 280-298) Career development psychology then is in part a synthesis of the older vocational development theories included within a new and more comprehensive rational structure. He describes the transition as follows:

> Super introduced the person as an agent in the process of vocational development. His contribution to that theory has so far been only a catalogue of those aspects of taking a position among one's fellows which stem from meeting of discontinuity of relevance to vocational development. The result is that the theory of vocational development is now subject to the restraint of structure*as this is presently arranged in our society. A step needs to be taken which places the person, not the structure, in the center and therefore makes possible study of the election and cultivation of structure <u>by the person</u>. When this step is taken, career, not vocation, will be the central issue in vocational psychology. (28, p. 290)

This point of view expressed by Tiedeman raises another important question, this time, regarding the place of earlier theories of vocational development. Have they served their

---

*Tiedeman's use of the word structure is not the same as Bordin's on page 8.

purpose as the necessary stepping stones in theory building and now to be catalogued as items of history? This then is important consideration that needs to be resolved.

In further consideration of vocational theory it is necessary to point out a significant new emphasis in Tiedeman's work. The shift in relation to Super's (1951) theory is from the situational (structural) aspects of self-concept implementation to a focus on the actual person. (28, p. 162) In this transition Tiedeman also ties in closely with Erickson's (1959) concept of ego-identity (9) and introduces the concept of purposing as the mechanism for psychosocial development. (28, p. 162) The result then in terms of our concern is that the development of accurate and meaningful perceptions (Tiedeman does not limit it to vocational perceptions) can be most meaningfully approached through helping students develop the capacity for purposeful action. (29) Former theories relied on managing the situational (structure) elements; and although these are important, they are only part of the process of career development. It is interesting to note here that the concept of human freedom becomes relevant in this process. Those who stress the structural elements are usually impressed with the limitations of human freedom while those who concentrate on the capacity of the individual to discover purpose and meaning for his life become impressed with the potential for human freedom.

It has been mentioned that structure is important but not of first importance. Certain modifications need to be made in structures that will guarantee freedom for students to develop purposing behavior.(29, p. 169) He (Tiedeman) does not discuss structures in any detail and apparently relies on the kinds of structures implicit in the older theories. As part of this review it would seem to be of value to look at a structure that may be useful in helping to plan instructional objectives and implement an educational (vocational) program. A recent concept of structure that is broadly based educationally can be found in Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia's, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Affective Domain. (19) The "Affective Domain" consists of a classification of affective behaviors organized around the principle of "internalization." This concept of internalization relates to the more popular perceiving, behaving, becoming rational. The classification is in the form of a hierarchy as shown in Chart I. (19, p. 35) In summary form the process of internalization begins with the attention of a student to some phenomenon (receiving), and as he pays attention, he differentiates attaching meaning or emotional significance to it (responding). By relating this experience to other experiences, the student attaches value to it (valving), which may result in a new organization of his value system (organization) and may result in a changed pattern of behavior (characterization). (19, chapter 3)

CHART I

TAXONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

1.0 Receiving (Attending)

- 1.1 Awareness
- 1.2 Willingness to Receive
- 1.3 Controlled or Selected Attention

2.0 Responding

- 2.1 Acquiescence in Responding
- 2.2 Willingness to Respond
- 2.3 Satisfaction in Response

3.0 Valuing

- 3.1 Acceptance of a Value
- 3.2 Preference for a Value
- 3.3 Commitment

4.0 Organization

- 4.1 Conceptualization of a Value
- 4.2 Organization of a Value System

5.0 Characterization by a Value or Value Complex

- 5.1 Generalized Set
- 5.2 Characterization

The taxonomy has considerable implication for guidance by organizing affective behaviors (interests, attitudes, values, appreciation, adjustment) into more meaningful categories. It provides a comprehensive structure for looking at behavior from the level of simple awareness up through possession of a complex philosophy of life. It has value for vocational applications although it is not limited to any one area of perceptual development and for that reason may be an ideal complement for Teideman's career development theory which is also broadly based.

To summarize, the purpose of this review of information on vocational development theory was to identify important considerations. These considerations seem to have important implications for selecting a theory that has optimum value for helping students develop meaningful and accurate vocational perceptions. The challenge as it appears is to look at career development in terms of purposeful action and integrate this approach utilizing a structure that will provide freedom and opportunity for students to develop purpose and pursue values as the way to their perceptual development.

Deterrents or Facilitators to Vocational Development and Adjustment

Before vocational development and adjustment can be facilitated, it is necessary to be cognizant of the deterrents to this process. Deterrents are usually either one or a combination of these factors:

Inadequate or Erroneous Information about Self Information about self is described by Holland as self-knowledge. He states:

> Self-knowledge refers to the amount of information the person possesses about himself. Over-evaluation leads to the selection of environment beyond the person's adaptive skills (unrealistic aspiration) and under-evaluation leads to the selection of environments below the person's skills. (16, p. 135)

Holland then concludes on the premise that persons with relatively accurate self-knowledge could experience better vocational development and/or adjustment. (16, p. 135)

Inadequate or Erroneous Information about Occupational Environments Holland's concept becomes the basis for the hypotheses that persons with better perceptions about occupational environments whould make more stable choices than do individuals with lesser information. More adequate choice then implies more learning opportunities for the accumulation of information and a greater self-differentiation and organization of occupational awareness. (16, p. 135)

Conflict with Self If the occupational choice is not compatible with the individual's hierarchy of needs, there is an unhappiness, retarded vocational development, and a very unsatisfactory vocational adjustment. An example of this conflict with self is the individual who has aspirations greater than his ability and is unable to reconcile the two.

Conflict with Others School counselors are familiar with the individual who has made, or has wished to make, an occupational choice but is pressured by society, parents, or peers to make another choice because of increased prestige or greater financial reward.

Any technique or program that contributes to the elimination of these deterrents is a facilitator to better vocational development and adjustment. Probably the best facilitator would be a developmental educational program that would provide children with continous learning experience about themselves and occupations. These experiences should recognize the contribution of all occupations and not attach a stigma to any. This educational program should provide exploratory courses throughout the elementary and secondary school years that would increase self-knowledge and knowledge of occupations. Further, this program should provide guidance to assist the individual to arrive at that period of vocational development where vocational decisions could be made independently and with a high degree of correlation between the self and individual aspirations.

Culturally and Socially Perceived Roles

The manner in which the adolescent progresses in the process of making a realistic vocational choice is limited by many factors. Culturally and socially perceived roles may not always be consciously accounted for in his evaluation and study.

In this connection various investigators point out that occupational preferences are to some degree controlled by environmental opportunities; what an adolescent sees and hears in his experience and in his particular place in history. For example, a wartime economy may be a factor in causing the military career to appear to be a glamorous occupation which will compare with other glamour occupations found in the peacetime labor market, such as pilot, forest ranger, professional athlete and explorer. (18, pp. 648-649)

Some authorities also point out that all subgroups in our American culture do not arrange occupations in a identical prestige hierarchy. All groups do not classify the professional and managerial occupations as the highest point in the job scale. Ginzberg and others point out that boys from the lower economic class look upon a skilled job or ownership of a small business as being as high an achievement as the professional and managerial jobs are to the middle and upper class youth. (18, p. 644)

Another characteristic difference between upper and lower class youth is that the lower class adolescent may be so dissatisfied that he has strong motivations to provide a better future as compared with his present level of living. The upper class adolescent may for his part simply wish to maintain his present family level. Even though the level sought by the lower class yo th is below the maintenance level of the upper class youth, it still represents an advance. (18, p. 644)

Some researchers believe that the desire to "get ahead" is confined largely to the middle and upper classes of our society and this American goal is not shared by the lower classes to the same extent. Hollingshead writes that lower-class children, "have limited their horizons to their class horizon, and in the process have unconsciously placed themselves in a position which will eventually occupy the same levels as their parents." (18, p. 644)

Another researcher, however, found in his work that it is only a rare occurance to find an adolescent in any walk of life who did not want to get ahead, or at least keep his present level, if he is already ahead. The aspirations of lower class youth tend to be less "lofty" than those of upper class youth, but lower class youth generally do desire to get ahead. (18, p. 646)

In a further examination of the factors associated with vocational choice are the very significant influences of the family, peer groups, and school. (18, p. 633) Proctor has reported that though sons are not likely to follow the specific occupations their parents, they will likely choose one with the same relative rank and educational requirements. Parental influence is a powerful factor in influencing youth in the selection of a vocation with social prestige. (18, p. 660)

Ginzberg has also found that boys from high income groups tend to assume they will go to college, and usually

select the professions as their vocational choice. Boys from low income groups think in terms of jobs which pay better than their father's positions, have steady employment, are skilled work jobs, with minimum chances for accidents. His highest goal may be to own a business of his own. (20, p. 44)

In an interesting review of the type of youth who will probably attend college, Carson McGuire has assigned labels to three groups who seem to be trying to achieve some culturally associated role. These groups are:

1. "The high-status statics" -- the upper or upper middle class youth who have accepted the educational attitudes of their group.
2. "The climbers" -- the lower middle or working class youth with great ambition, a good mind, and peer associates from the "better" homes and environments.
3. "The strainer" -- the lower middle or working class youth who think they want to "make good" but are not sure they want this entire way of life as they perceive it. (20, p. 45)

Many occupations have become stereotyped over a period of years. Bendix describes this process that dates back to the early days of the Industrial Revolution in England. (4, pp. 203-204) It took a considerable length of time, he points out, for workers to develop what he calls "an

internalized ethic or work performance." Gradually, folkways and mores developed that defined duties and obligations. Occupations with pretensions to becoming professions evolved a code. The code is often formal and so may get farther from the actual work situation until it becomes a creed or faith, a statement of what occupational members are supposed to live up to. Many occupations have been stereotyped in the minds of people because of the publicity and advertising given the code.

There is also sex stereotyping of occupations. Singer and Stefflre comment that high school boys as compared to high school girls in preferring the job values of profit, power, and independence were following an expected role or sex stereotype. (24, p.89) Wagman discovered that men prefer to a greater degree a job where they can have the recognition of others, and women prefer the job value of social service. (32, p. 260)

As an example of the divergence between socially perceived roles and actual roles, Lois Lukens reports some facts about 238 graduate student nurses in an article titled, "Nurse Stereotypes Must Go." The response of 137 nurses in medical surgical and 101 nurses in psychiatric nursing were compared. The responses to the questionnaire showed many differences in the need, general values and occupational values of the two nursing groups specializing in divergent clinical fields. (21, p. 95) Due to diversification of

levels of preparation and responsibility, and of specialized training within nursing, individuals with quite different need and value systems appear to be well accommodated within the broad occupation of nursing.

Individual and Group Readiness in Vocational Development

Many educators have long accepted "readiness" as something that just happens. A child is believed to suddenly arrive at a point in his development at which time he is ready to learn a given skill.

In referring to readiness for vocational development, Wellman has stated that, "Readiness as used here refers to the individuals' attitudes, values, and behavior with respect to occupations and vocational planning." (33, p. 262)

If we accept readiness in this construct, it follows that it can be and is shaped by one's cultural and economic environment. Certainly the attitudes, values, and behavior of the individual from a sub-standard cultural and economical environment would not be the same as those of an individual from an affluent suburban environment.

The individual's readiness, or lack of readiness, is a product of numerous factors. Educators are able to determine to some degree the experiences the individual will be subjected to in the school. Counselors are able to assist the individual in the development of his role perception.

It is imperative that the individual develop a felt need for vocational planning. To do this, he needs an adequate concept of work. At the same time the counselor should recognize the level of readiness of the individual he is counseling. Schools are able to help adolescents develop readiness in vocational perception by providing materials and opportunities to explore occupations.

CHAPTER III

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

Ways of Developing Accurate and Realistic Vocational Perceptions

There is a wide gap between what is proposed and what is actually done in guidance and counseling for vocational and technical education. The failure of educators as well as counselors to understand the relationship between their work and future occupational role of students has limited the development of vocational guidance, placement and follow-up. Grant Venn provides further evidence of the vocational problem in his description:

> The present inadequacy of guidance activities is illustrated by the fact that close to half of the states receiving Federal (vocational) funds for their programs spend less than one percent of that money on occupational guidance and counseling. The problem begins in college-oriented high school guidance departments, which too often are staffed by people who have neither the knowledge to help students select an occupation nor the inclination to direct them toward the appropriate vocational or technical education opportunities. It continues once the student arrives in the vocational or technical school; although no other segment of education had recognized the importance of vocational guidance to the extent that these schools have, lack of funds, or reliable testing materials, of appropriately trained vocational guidance counselors, limtis what these schools can do. (30, p. 36)

Since many schools have no formal program of vocational guidance services, and many that do have programs are handicapped by limited staff and resources, the vocational needs of many students are still not met. As they go from

school to other training, or as they enter the labor market, many boys and girls find that they need more help than the school has given them in making the transition. Furthermore, since vocational development does not stop with getting the first job, new problems of vocational choice and adjustment arise during the adult years. The needs left unmet by educational institutions and the new needs which occur later in life have led to the following suggestions for vocational guidance and counseling programs in school systems.

1. Provide adequate materials for vocational orientation programs. Here the student is allowed to investigate an occupation and report his findings to the class. In this method, students are exposed to a number of different occupational choices.
2. To provide "try-out" experiences through school-community sponsored educational work programs.
3. Vocational education can be supplemented by the use of audio-visual materials when used by capable counselors as an aid to vocation choice making.
4. Secondary school counselors have, in cooperation with local public employment offices, carried out a special counseling and placement program for high school seniors about to enter the labor market. This program usually begins in the fall and continues throughout the senior year. Further, since so

many of our rural youth leave the farm and enter the labor force, the need for bringing this service to pupils in rural areas is especially acute.

5. Each year young people with physical and mental disabilities are assisted by State Rehabilitation Agencies. School counselors can identify these youth and refer them to rehabilitation officials who in turn can help them to either find a job or receive vocational, technical or college training that prepares them for established employment.
6. Counselors use tests as another tool to create interest in occupational choice selection. Tests such as the Kuder Preference Record and The California Occupational Interest Inventory are two examples of tests used to interest students in occupational choices.

Statement of Reasonable Goals for Vocational Counseling

Goals for vocational counseling at the elementary, secondary, and post-high school levels cannot be completely separated. However, at the elementary level, attitudes and concepts may be formed which develop an increased awareness of the world of work.

At the secondary level students should develop more realistic self-concepts which will enable them to better understand their capacities as they relate to the choice of a vocation.

At the post high school level the individual should be helpful to direct his internal and external resources toward the achievement of a long-term vocational pattern.

The ultimate goal of vocational counseling is to assist the individual in finding meaning and purpose for his life in a career which permits him to use his abilities for the greatest benefit to him and society.

Local Programs

Many perceptions youth develop about occupations come from the influence of parents. In studies in which young people have been asked who they turn to for help in vocational decision making they point out clearly that parents are at or near the top of their list.

Parents have influence on their children in many ways, both positive and negative. When parents exert the wrong kinds of pressures or influence on their youngsters it is obvious that corrective counseling is needed. When they exert positive or beneficial influence on their youngsters it is equally as obvious that parents need reliable information to use in advising their child.

Parent conferences, then, become important as decisions are made regarding students' education or training beyond high school. As parents attempt to help their youngster they need occupational and educational information which is available from high schools.

Sometime prior to the twelfth grade in high school,

parents need the services of counselors. In one experiment, in conferences with over two hundred parents of eleventh grade students it was found that parents lack information about institutions for education or training beyond high school, they lack understanding of the importance of considering interests and abilities when youngsters attempt to make decisions, they need to know and understand the current pressures on youth to attend college, they need to know of the many opportunities available to youth in trade, technical, or business, and parents need to have someone in which they can have confidence in discussing all kinds of problems as they assist their children in planning for the future.

Counselors sometimes complain that their counseling is wasted or ineffective because of the lack of opportunity to change the environment of the client. Working with parents gives counselors the opportunity to change the student's environment to some extent.

In conferences with parents of eleventh grade students, it seemed to be beneficial to first explain the purposes or reasons for the parent conference program. The second step usually involved an explanation of the student's school and activity record, and then counselors showed parents the information available to their youngster in the counseling center.

Some results of the parent conferences are that student

"walk-in" business increases, there are changes in the student's programs of study which appear to be beneficial in terms of the student's abilities and interests, and an increased use of vocational, educational, and training information. Parent conferences promote better relations within the community based on service that can produce cooperation in school matters beneficial to both parents and to the school. The primary benefit, however, is found in improved student planning for training or education beyond high school.

Another example of a program of action in the local community is found in offering counselor services to subject matter areas. One high school in the Midwest finds counselors going into the team-teaching program in eleventh grade English classes with educational-vocational units which he (the counselor) presents to students.

The accumulation of directories of people who represent various businesses, furnished by local service organizations can become a valuable source for referral as students are <u>ready for</u> and <u>want</u> help in vocational decision-making. This method is taking the place of the old, one-shot, career day in some areas. When, in the counseling process, students show an interest in visiting business or industrial personnel or facilities one may make appointments for students through directories of this type.

Another way to improve the exchange of psychological information, as well as economic and sociological, is through regular meetings of all local agencies in order to form policies conducive to helping youth. One city has a group called the Council of Social Agencies. One of their functions is to supply a "Directory" which lists and describes the role of each agency. Counselors find this a very valuable service for help in referring students who need special attention.

One example of group vocational guidance is found in the Denver, Colorado schools where a vocations course called "Looking Ahead" is required of all tenth grade students. This is a twelve-week course, taught by counselors, built around testing, education and training opportunities, occupational information, and personal assessment. Another school has a required six-week course for ninth grade students.

State and National Programs

State and national offices of education and related professional organizations have a responsibility to assist in making vocational information available, encouraging useful practices in disseminating this information to students, and assisting in evaluating such materials. Encouragement should be given to the development and dissemination of all kinds of audio-visual materials such as films, filmstrips, recordings, and occupational briefs. Some of the

practices presently followed which hold promise for expanded help include the following:

1. The N.V.G.A. Guidelines for evaluating occupational information
2. Publication of reviews of educational and occupational briefs, labor information, books and other materials
3. Preparation and distribution of briefs, books and training information
4. Preparation and distribution of films, filmstrips and recordings on vocational subjects
5. Use of educational television to disseminate information to students, parents, counselors and others
6. Collection and dissemination of information concerning vocational guidance programs and practices which have proved successful in local schools
7. In-service training workshops for administrators, counselors, librarians and other personnel
8. Conducting studies helpful to improving student perception of vocations
9. Working cooperatively withprofessional teacher's organizations to develop guidelines for the preparation of vocational materials useful to classroom teachers
10. Encouraging local schools to secure and use in a meaningful way, occupational materials for students, parents, counselors and others

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Young people form perceptions of vocations as a result of their observations of the world about them. The attitude and information transmitted by parents, peers, and others, material presented by audio-visual media, magazines, newspapers, other printed materials, and personal experiences, all influence vocational perception. Some of the information transmitted is incidental, some accidental and some intentional; some is accurate, some biased, and some very misleading. Young people often have difficulty in evaluating and interpreting what they see, hear, and experience.

The educational experience of each student should provide accurate and complete vocational information appropriate to the student's needs and interests, and assistance in interpreting the material to make it helpful to him. Resources should be developed and made available to the student and his parents, and counseling time should be provided for assistance as necessary.

Conclusions

Following are some of the factors which may develop erroneous or inadequate vocational perceptions of students

and which may require additional attention and help from school counselors:

1. Lack of information about occupations and the world of work in general
2. Lack of self-understanding
3. College oriented secondary school programs that tend to stigmatize the non-college bound student
4. College oriented guidance programs that tend to classify all students as college or non-college bound
5. Inadequate or erroneous concepts of vocations held by parents and others with whom the student comes in contact

Perception in vocational decision-making by adolescents needs to be positively structured. However, as the techniques employed in working with one youngster are not necessarily always effective with another, the psychology of career choice must be fully understood by counselors. To this extent, there is no unwavering guide. The answer lies in an awareness of human variables, the ability to assimilate knowledge, and the development of a technique in distributing vocational information.

Recommendations

A program to provide a developmental approach to occupational information should be developed in each school system. This should include some units specifically devoted to helping

students relate their own interests and aptitudes to vocational areas, and developing good vocational perceptions.

A student's choice of an occupation is dependent on the amount and kind of information counselors make available to him. The right to choose an occupation does not assure the individual of a good choice unless there is a good basis for this choice. The selection of an appropriate vocation being one of the most important and vital decisions to be faced by every individual, it would seem to be a primary responsibility of every member of the educational staff to assist youth in this process. With the aim of enlisting the immagination and innovations of educators to provide the student with both a general education and occupational experiences for making this choice, the following recommendations are presented:

1. Although dissemination of occupational information is a responsibility of all educators, certain specific areas may be more ideally suited. Librarians might become more vocationally oriented to encourage wider use of such material. English, speech, and social science areas may provide excellent opportunities for appropriate activities for assisting in occupational decision-making.

2. The secondary school could work in closer cooperation with local and state agencies in both job training and job placement. Counselors should work toward creating flexibility in our educational programs to permit cooperation

with industry and labor in instituting programs of education and training outside the traditional classrooms.

3. Counselors and teachers should seek a variety of occupational experiences. Cataloguing these experiences together with the collection of similar data from people in the community could serve as valuable resource material. Such data could be secured through cooperation with service clubs, unions and industry, and would be invaluable as locally accessable information.

4. That more vocational programs be made available for students with special needs, and work-study programs be developed for students who need work experience and job satisfaction to continue their high school education.

5. That the school and community promote better understanding of the value of vocational training to achieve the status and prestige it needs to perform its proper and vital role in a technological society.

6. Counselors and teachers should communicate to parents the philosophy that adequate education and training to meet individual needs is an appropriate criteria of success. In line with this view, all teachers should be made aware of, and encouraged to, relate to their students the practical applications of their subject matter area to the world of work.

7. That the public schools make their plants and facilities available during the summer vacation period in

an effort to give vocational training to school drop outs, graduates, and adults.

8. That those in higher education devise methods for assuming a greater responsibility for vocational and technical training. Counselors should promote in-service training programs in cooperation with institutions of higher education to assist teachers in relating their subject matter to occupations.

9. Counselors should take the lead in re-defining vocations and occupations in terms of all areas of life work, rather than to catagorize into college and non-college bound categories.

10. That guidance departments not only make it possible for students to find information on a variety of occupations but that they also make it possible for them to appraise the accuracy of this information.

11. Field trips with suitable before-and-after discussions on the vocational aspects of jobs observed should be encouraged at all grade levels.

12. Exploratory experiences in vocational aspects of all school classes should be encouraged.

V. BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Adams, James F. (ed). Counseling and Guidance - Readings. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1965.

2. Allport, Gordon W. "Psychological Models for Guidance," Harvard Educational Review. Vol. 32, No. 4, (fall 1962).

3. Beck, Carlton E. Philosophical Foundations of Guidance. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1963.

4. Bendix, Reinhard. Work and Authority in Industry. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1956.

5. Blocher, Donald H. Developmental Counseling. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1966.

6. Bordin, Edward S., et al. "An Articulated Framework for Vocational Development," Vocational Guidance and Career Development. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1966.

7. Borow, Henry (ed.). Man in a World at Work. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1964.

8. Bruner, Jerome S. "Introduction: the New Educational Technology," Revolution in Teaching: New Theory, Technology and Curricula. New York: Bantam Books, 1962.

9. Bruner, Jerome S. The Process of Education. New York: Vintage Books, 1960.

10. Byrne, Richard H. The School Counselor. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1963.

11. Engle, Mary S. "Psychological Theory and Guidance," Guidance in American Education: Backgrounds and Prospects. Boston: Harvard University Press, 1964.

12. Erikson, Erik H. "The Problem of Ego Identity," Identity and Anxiety. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1960.

13. Goethals, George W. "Some Contributions From Psychological Theory to the Practice of Guidance," Guidance in American Education: Backgrounds and Prospects. Boston: Harvard University Press, 1964.

14. Hahn, Milton E. and Malcolm S. McLean. Counseling Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955.

15. Hill, George E. Management and Improvement of Guidance. New York: Appleton, Century, Crofts, 1965.

16. Holland, John L. "A Theory of Vocational Choice," Vocational Guidance and Career Development. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.

17. Hoppock, Robert. Occupational Information. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957.

18. Horrocks, John E. The Psychology of Adolescence--Behavior and Development. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1962.

19. Krathwohl, D. R., et al. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, The Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook II: Affective Domain. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1964.

20. Lipsett, Lawrence. "Social Factors in Vocational Development," Vocational Guidance and Career Development. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.

21. Lukens, Lois G. "The Nurse Stereotype Must Go," Vocational Guidance Quarterly. Volume 13,(winter 1964-65).

22. Peters, Herman J. and James C. Hansen, (eds.). Vocational Guidance and Career Development-Selected Readings. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.

23. Simons, Joseph. "An Existential View of Vocational Development," Personnel and Guidance Journal. Volume 44, No. 6, (February 1966).

24. Singer, S. C. and B. Stefflre. "Age Differences in Job Values and Desires," Journal of Counseling Psychology. Volume 2, (fall 1954).

25. Super, Donald E. and John O. Crites. Appraising Vocational Fitness. New York: Harper&Row Publishers, 1962.

26. Super, Donald E. The Psychology of Careers. New York: Harper&Row Publishers, 1957.

27. Super, Donald E. "Guidance in American Education: Its Status and its Future," Guidance in American Education: Backgrounds and Prospects. Boston: Harvard University Press, 1964.

28. Tiedeman, David V. "The Cultivation of Career in Vocational Development Through Guidance in Education," Guidance in American Education II: Current Issues and Suggested Action. Boston: Harvard University Press, 1965.

29. Tiedeman, David V. "Purposing Through Education: the Further Delineation of Goal and Program for Guidance," American Education: Backgrouds and Prospects. Boston: Harvard University Press, 1964.

30. Venn, Grant. Man, Education and Work. Washington: American Council on Education, 1964.

31. Volsky, Theo C. "Vocational Development as a Behavorial Concept," Guidance in American Education: Backgrounds and Prospects. Boston: Harvard University Press, 1964.

32. Wagman, Morton. "Sex Differences in Occupational Values," Personnel and Guidance Journal. Volume 33, (September 1954).

33. Wellman, Frank E. "Vocational Counseling of Adolescents: A Critical Look," Vocational Guidance and Career Development. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.

34. White House Conference on Children and Youth. Children in a Changing World. Washington: Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, Inc., 1960.

35. Wrenn, Gilbert C. The Counselor in a Changing World. Washington: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1962.

36. Zeran, Franklin R. and Anthony C. Riccio. Organization and Administration of Guidance Services. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1962.

TRAINING INSTITUTE FOR VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

AND COUNSELING PERSONNEL

Summer 1966

A Paper Submitted for Partial Fulfillment

of the Course Requirements

of Guidance 400

FACILITATING VOCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING THROUGH THE UTILIZATION OF TEST DATA AND OTHER PSYCHOLOGICAL INFORMATION

Group II

Richard Galusha Co-Chairman
Roger Webb Co-Chairman
Jim Nickell Secretary

Jim Athen
Carmon Bixler
Walter Horvatich
Garland Longhofer
Gerald Quinn
Bob Stinson
Charles Wright

OUTLINE

I. Problem: Facilitating Vocational Decision-Making Through the Utilization of Test Data and Other Psychological Information

II. Basic Facts--Implications for Vocational Counseling

A. The Need for Understanding of the Limitations of Test Data

B. Interpretation of Test Data May Enhance the Dynamics of Multipotentiality.

C. Psychological Information Relating to Values, Style of Life, Learning and Curriculum as These Apply to Development

III. Recommendations and Conclusions

FACILITATING VOCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING THROUGH THE UTILIZATION OF TEST DATA AND OTHER PSYCHOLOGICAL INFORMATION

Schools and counselors have traditionally used psychological test data in too narrow a fashion. They have use of this information in vocational decision-making only in terms of what the counselee shows at that particular time, and they have not encompassed the data into an over-all developmental process. In this paper, the writers will attempt to show the value of a more comprehensive use of test data and psychological information in pointing out the multipotentiality and growth potential of students.

Test data that are used to narrow the vocational or occupational choice has the effect of restricting the growth potential. This would appear to be in conflict with the often expounded objectives of schools and counselors that their function is to enable a full realization, a self-actualization of each individual.

Tests are viewed by many students, teachers and administrators as being powerful, decisive tools that yield infallible and definitive results. Coleman suggests that in this instance, "test data may be regarded as potentially more threatening or strongly reinforcing than other types of information the counselor may have." (1, p. 132) One may properly assume that a fundamental function of a counselor in utilization of test data is in the interpretation of test results. Not only does he understand the dynamics of personality and adjustment, he must also perceive the unexpressed needs of the individual.

The utilization of test data to facilitate the dynamics of multi-potentiality places upon the counselor the necessity of his integrating into the interpretation the more abstract, or shall we say, the more sophisticated implications contained in the test results. The procedure involves the presentation of the meaning of the results at a pace that enables the student to revise preconceived aspirations unsupported by the test data. It allows him to "save face" in a situation that is threatening. A hurried interpretation without the characteristics of a helping or supporting relationship may tend to reinforce attitudes that tests have mystical qualities and that counselors have insights bordering upon the supernatural.

There is a general agreement that interests, personality traits, motivation and work habits are factors in achieving vocational success. Consequently, each test score or observation must be considered as representing only one small part of the individual's total aptitudes, accomplishments, or personality traits and must not be regarded as a final appraisal. One must constantly look for supplementary evidence to use with the test data.

For the purpose of this paper we have, by design, concluded that a review of specific tests that portend to measure certain aptitudes or abilities would not be germane. We offer no "how-to-do-it" steps, nor do we suggest the meaning of specific test scores. We wish to foster the concept that the taking of tests and their subsequent interpretation should be an expanding, developmental process and not a process by which success capabilities are restricted to those required in a particular vocation.

Our point of departure from the traditional approach of obtaining information from tests and making more or less specific predictions is to facilitate potential growth, understanding and attitudes by making test interpreters more aware of their function as an integral part of the interpretation. As Coleman puts it, " . . . brief, albeit objective reporting of test results isn't likely to change a self-image of long duration that the individual needs to maintain for self-consistency." (1, p. 132)

BASIC FACTS

It would be logical to assume that the typical counselor is knowledgeable about the use of instruments and techniques to find suitable tests of aptitudes, abilities, interests, etc. It does not seem reasonable to either review the different tests nor suggest a definite testing program in this paper. It is the writers' belief that it is more important to concentrate on the dynamics of psychological data. We attempt to integrate a more subjective approach into the recognition of multipotentiality for the choice of vocations.

Dynamics of Multipotentiality

The techniques and procedures for vocational counseling outlined by Wellman give a three fold process, (1) readiness, (2) ability, and (3) freedom. "Readiness" as used here refers to the individual's attitudes, values, and behavior in respect to vocational planning. "Ability" as used here means the student's ability to estimate the probability of future educational and occupational sucess. The last

concept, that of "freedom," is the individual's freedom to make educational and vocational decisions.

Assessing the student's ability to estimate future success and to utilize these estimates in making vocational and educational decisions is related to educational and vocational psychometrics, developmental psychology and counseling theory and practice. Interests measures are an essential part of students' vocational "ability."

Vocational interests should be defined in terms of the methods used to assess them. Inventoried interest appears to be more valid than expressed interest or manifest interest in vocational counseling. Super states that inventoried interests are related to vocational development for there is a strong tendency for people to enter and to remain in fields of work which provide outlets for their interests and to leave inappropriate fields. (9, p. 224) According to Goldman, interest inventories predict the field the person will enter, but seem to have much less value in predicting the degree of success within that field. (2, p. 334) There appears to be evidence that interest in the activity itself is not always related to success due to certain extrinsic factors such as status, service to others, income, prestige, etc.

Although it is well established that people are multipotential, there seems to be value in attempting to evaluate a person's specific potential in various abilities for the purpose of making wise vocational choices. The relationship between aptitude and success in occupations varies with the complexity of the work. If the tasks required in an occupation require a high degree of performance in a specific aptitude, there seems to be evidence to support the validity of certain aptitude

tests. However, in occupations requiring a complex series of factors, there is no one special aptitude which is likely to have much relation to success. (9, p. 216)

> Realization that there are multiple vocational outlets for any given ability and that there are multiple ways of functioning within any occupation should reassure both counselor and client even when there is considerable discrepancy between interests and abilities. (2, p. 331)

Job attitude, or the motivation of the counselee toward a career choice is one of the most important aspects of vocational counseling. Personality inventories are about the only means, meager as they may be, to measure these abstractions. Since job satisfaction is dependent upon the outlook of the individual to various factors relating to the job, a valid measure of personality traits might have a great bearing on assisting students in vocational planning. Super found that personality factors were the greatest single cause of dismissal in industry, which might be expected since employers know better how to screen applicants for aptitudes and proficiency--little is now known about just which personality traits make for success or failure in a given occupation. (9, p. 238)

Attempts at developing the multipotentiality through the school curriculum are often ineffective and may be contradictory or restrictive when put into actual practice. Barlow, as reported by Reed says, "The idea that certain goals of education can be pursued only in certain courses is false." General versus vocational education forces a dichotomy where none exists, and college preparatory versus terminal or vocational implies a meaningful distinction which is, in, fact, artificial. "It is the intent of the individual, that makes art,

machine shop, music, history, electronics or any other subject either vocational or general." The test of any learning is the degree to which it provides students with new varieties of behavior. English facilitates oral and written expression, not necessarily just to help students get into college. The emphasis placed on hard-core academics to the exclusion of cultural courses and/or courses designed to provide employable skills inevitably results in placing discriminatory values on the latter. (6, p. 163)

Growth Potential

Realistically, we should note some of the present uses of test data. Let us look briefly at the unconscious, but nevertheless destructive, practices now restricting children's opportunities.

Students are placed in different classes through use of intelligence tests which employ middle-class terms and middle-class concepts. These culturally-biased tests do not measure the true potential of large masses of children. Seligman (8, p. 105) wrote of studies in which students' I. Q.'s have been raised substantially. He further states, "But even in the case of children labeled as mentally retarded, special psychotherapeutic techniques and special education techniques have been applied to raise I. Q.'s, over a three-year period, by about forty points."

Some teachers who teach culturally-deprived children assume that their low I. Q. scores are correct and react negatively toward these children. This teacher reaction hurts the child's self-image and his attitude toward learning.

Low achievement and intelligence scores are recorded on the permanent records so that later administrative decisions may be prejudiced by the students' "inferior" past. Too often, counselors interpret a counselee's test results with techniques that injure the self-concepts of the low-scoring students. Valuable counselor time is spent defining test terms and meanings instead of listening to the students discuss vocational interests and concerns. It is important that counselors keep in mind these negative possibilities of test use as well as the value of these tests.

Herman Peters wrote to a member of this committee:

> I believe that the whole purpose of education (certainly formal education) is to inject intervening variables so as to upset the prediction of a continuance of previous behavior. You may say, and rightly so, that most persons or students do continue in predictable paths. This is the shame of education. My observations lead me to conclude that most schools solidify the early set of behavior rather than free it, which is the true mission of the school.*

The expanded employment of school counselors is many administrators' response to the need to divert students from a "faulty" path. Counselors are charged with the responsibility of being an agent for change.

At this point, it should be mentioned that from the new Federal Aid programs which are part of the War on Poverty, schools have new resources for freeing the students' potential. While it is the feeling of the writers that many federally-sponsored programs have limitations that unduly restrict the best utilization of the programs, i.e., the necessity of stating a vocational choice by students in vocational

---

*This quotation is from a letter written on January 6, 1966, by Dr. Peters, Ohio State University, to Gerald Quinn.

programs, or the need for administrators to produce a high percentage of successful students, these new programs are opening new possibilities. Of course, these programs are aimed at specific groups. The counselor is still the person who is in the best position to help the student use these programs for his self-enhancement.

These important points should be kept in mind as the counselors use test results. First of all, any student, be he in the first or the twelfth grade, who takes a test should be given an opportunity to discuss what the results mean for him. For the low-scoring student, this would require counselor support and encouragement for continued efforts.

The counselor should strive to use the test results to provide the counselee with opportunities to examine his interests, his values, and his goals. Also, the counselor should be mainly concerned about the counselee's perception of himself and his world rather than his use of test data. Finally, the counselor should strive to see that other persons, either in or out of school, do not use the test results unless they can interpret them correctly.

Counselors have many resources, economic, social, and educational, that can be used to help the individual grow towards vocational maturity. Predictive instruments alone cannot be used successfully for long-term planning because every person is always becoming something different.

The Utilization of Other Psychological Information in Vocational Decision-Making

In our complex society today, work is a great deal more than a means of making a livelihood. It has a tremendous influence on our

whole lives. Work, for example, determines an individual's social class, his manner of living, his place of living; and it indirectly may affect his attitudes, opinions and values. This would seem to imply that the traditional method of vocational guidance, the matching of the tested characteristics of an individual with an occupation that had similar characteristics, is no longer adequate to serve the needs of our youth today.

Cecil H. Patterson had the following to say about the nature of vocational counseling today:

> Vocational counseling involves more than the matching of aptitudes and abilities, or even of interests with job demands and requirements. Vocational counseling needs to take into consideration the factors in the individual which influence his concepts of himself and the world of work. Needs as perceived and experienced by the individual, his perceptions of himself, and his perceptions of occupations are relevant factors. The way in which a student feels and thinks about himself in relation to occupations and workers, the kind of person he would like to become in making a living as well as the interpersonal relationships encountered in various occupations become relevant topics for discussion in the counseling interview. (5, p. 441)

If we accept the foregoing as being the nature of vocational counseling today, we must then view vocational counseling as being more than merely the administration and interpretation of tests to evaluate students' potential; and the providing of information, occupational and otherwise, and the relating of these two facts.

We may then readily accept a definition of vocational counseling such as Super's.

> Vocational guidance is the process of helping a person to develop and accept an integrated picture of himself and of his role in the world of work, to test this concept against reality, and to convert it into reality, with satisfaction to himself and benefit to society. (9, p. 197)

It is the writers' contention that much of what was stated in Patterson's nature of vocational guidance and Super's definition of vocational counseling can be achieved through the proper implementation of the counseling interview without relying entirely on the use of test data and cumulative record information.

The writers have no intention of belittling the virtues of testing or the cumulative record information. It is strongly felt that, in some instances, the manner in which these guidance tools are used in the counseling interview has had a detrimental effect to the individual's learning process. Rogers stated that psychometric tests which are initiated by the counselor are a hindrance to the counseling process whose purpose is to release growth forces. (7, p. 447)

In relation to vocational development, there are many dimensions one needs to know about oneself before he can learn to do anything about these dimensions. That is to say, an individual cannot possibly learn what he is to do with information about himself, if he does not <u>have</u> the information about himself.

It is through the counseling interview, which focuses attention upon the individual, that the individual will obtain this knowledge of self.

The writers are not implying that counselors are neglecting to use the interview in vocational guidance. This is not the problem. The implication here is that counselors are frequently inclined to use the vocational counseling interview as merely information giving.

If the vocational counseling interview is accepted as being a learning situation, and it is felt that it must be accepted as such to

be effective, we have to ask ourselves why the student is in our office. Rogers states, "Counselors should not assume that the client's basic difficulty stems from lack of information only." (7, pp. 103-104) Gustad supports Rogers' statement when he says, "When a student appears in a counselor's office, his motivation may range from mild curiousity to a sincere, distressing anxiety-motivated desire to solve a problem." (3, p. 271)

The foregoing statements then would imply that definite questions must be considered. For example, "What are the individual's motivations, what skills does he possess, what information about himself does he have or lack?" We must be reasonably certain that we understand the student and that the student understands himself. Too often a student is given the information that he requests without being given a chance to tell or even learn how he feels about what he has been given.

It is conceivable that most students need only certain very specific information. Reference to certain books or pamphlet sources will give them the information that they seek; however, the counselor can never really be certain that this is all that the student wanted unless he is given the opportunity to talk freely as he wished, whether directly related to his vocational problem or not. It is also conceivable that a student may be using the request for information or testing as a means to seek personal contact with the counselor. According to Rogers, "Any person may go to a book for information, but when he consults another person it is not always just pure information seeking." (7, p. 104)

We must assess the meaning of the personal relationship. It is incumbent upon the counselor to find out what use the student is trying to make of his relationship with the counselor.

This is not to say that all students that talk to the counselor through the course of the day in his office are there because they have a deep-seated psychological problem and the writers, at this point, caution against the conscious effort to look for a problem in everything the student says or does. The writers are implying that the counselor must assess the situation.

That there are many advantages to the interview in fostering vocational development and that, if used as a learning process, the interview will follow the definition of vocational guidance as given by Super and the nature of vocational guidance as stated by Patterson is evidenced in the following statement by Jane Warters.

> During an interview, the student may reveal thoughts, feelings, attitudes, preferences, hopes, and desires not easily identified by the counselor through the use of observation or tests, or readily disclosed by the student in questionnaires, autobiographies and the like. Actually, until a student explores certain matters by talking about them with an interested, accepting counselor, he may not be fully aware of just what he does think and feel regarding them. By talking things over he comes to perceive or understand how he feels and what he thinks. Both he and the counselor can then see his life situation, problems, and pressing concerns more clearly than before. . . (10, p. 409)

IMPLICATIONS

1. Tests should be interpreted to all students so that they can maintain a positive self-image.

2. Psychological information obtained in primary grades may indicate potential blocks in children's learning skills or their mental maturation.

3. Tests are being used to place children into "special" classes from which there is little chance of escape.

4. Children who score low on tests are often treated by teachers in a manner which develops poor attitudes toward school as well as a poor self-concept.

5. Since children develop concepts and attitudes toward occupations in the elementary grades, psychological data should not be interpreted so that it will limit the vocational horizons.

6. Many students who make an early entry into the work force lack the knowledge of their abilities and interests and of the world of work necessary to find a career that will be satisfying to them.

7. Psychological data is often used to set a pattern to which the student is bound for the rest of his school career, thus limiting his future career opportunities.

8. In some states, the state department of vocational education is not closely tied to the state department of education. Where this is true, there seems to be a strong difference of opinion between departments about the role of the vocational counselor. The vocational education personnel contend that too little is being done to alert young people about the opportunities in the vocational program and the world of work while the state guidance divisions contend that guidance cannot be separated into vocational and educational guidance.

9. The development and interpretation of test data and psychological information must reflect the awareness and understanding that individuals have the potential to successfully engage in multiple vocational choices.

10. Federal funds for vocational education are often used toward training for specific job skills and could have the effect of restricting

the growth potential of individuals.

11. Policy makers at the state level have structured the patterns of vocational education under the assumption that students remain in the job for which they have been trained.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The counselor should participate in the in-service training of teachers to help them develop the skills necessary to interpret tests in an encouraging manner so that the child can better understand his peers and himself.

2. Counselors should help school personnel understand the difference in the potentials of mentally deficient children and culturally-deprived children.

3. Counselors in their work with teachers should relieve the teacher's anxiety and hostility toward the child who seems unable to benefit from his teaching.

4. Psychological data should be used to understand the individual's present position and to help plan short range programs to enhance their opportunities. An ungraded school which would emphasize individual growth rather than competition with others would seem to be a meritorious example for students of all degrees of abilities.

5. Counselors should help administrators see the value of making the curriculum as broad and as flexible as possible. Pupils' programs should be easy to change as their potentialities and interests indicate the need for change.

6. Guidance personnel must make great efforts to diminish the

gap in understanding between vocational education and the guidance movement. Research that supports this position should be presented. The concept that vocational guidance is for all students should be explained with patience and good will. Joint efforts should be made to develop better counselor understanding of the modern technological society and the ways for youth to become a part of it.

7. State guidance personnel need to work with vocational education policymakers to encourage a more flexible approach to career development as reflected by state financial support.

8. Research in the effectiveness of intensive vocational guidance projects needs to be encouraged.

SUMMARY

The picturing of the vocational guidance counselor's task as helping one to formulate an adequate idea of himself and to find a role appropriate to the kind of person he sees himself to be and seeks to become, through the proper utilization of test data and psychological information, adds depth and meaning to the work of vocational guidance.

REFERENCES

1. Coleman. The School Counselor. The American School Counselor Association, Vol. 8, No. 4, May 1961.

2. Goldman, Leo. Using Tests in Counseling. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1961.

3. Gustad, John W. "Test Information and Learning in the Counseling Process," Vocational Guidance and Career Development, Herman J. Peters and J. C. Hansen, editors. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1966.

4. Katz, Martin. Decisions of Values. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963.

5. Patterson, Cecil H. "Counseling Self-Clarification and Helping Relationship," Man in a World at Work, Henry Borow, editor. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964.

6. Reed, Harold J. "Counseling Services for Out-of-School Youth," Guidance and the School Dropout, Daniel Schreiber, editor. N. E. A. and A. P. G. A., 1964.

7. Rogers, Carl R. and J. L. Wallen. Counseling with Returned Servicemen. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1944.

8. Seligman, B. (ed.). Poverty as a Public Issue. New York: Free Press, 1965.

9. Super, Donald E. The Psychology of Careers. Harper & Brothers, 1957.

10. Warters, Jane. Techniques of Counseling. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.

THE UTILIZATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL INFORMATION IN VOCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING

A Report

Submitted in

Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for Guidance 400

by

Dennis Hanley, Bill Rosser — Co-Chairmen
Lyle Evenson, Walter Redmon — Co-Secretaries
Don Bloss
Jerry Bolmeier
Dellas Chastain
John Cornette
Janet Land
Gerald Ross

July 1966

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	Problem and Purpose	1
II.	BASIC FACTS	2
	Vocational Life Style Understanding	2
	Psychological Impact of Change Upon Individuals	4
	Opportunities and the Individual	7
III.	IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL COUNSELING	14
	Assessment of Counselee Strengths, Abilities, Values	14
	Flux of Technology and Flexibility of the Individual	14
	Choosing Vocations Within Life Style	15
	Educational Responsibility for Adaptation to Changes	16
IV.	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	17
V.	REFERENCES	20

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Problem and Purpose

> When a man replies to the question "What do you do?," we are enabled to place him at least approximately. We can broadly estimate the range of his income, the size of his family, where he lives, where he works, how he spends his leisure time, what clubs he belongs to. (3, p. 67)

The integration of environmental information into the vocational decision-making process is fundamental to a cognitive approach to a realistic vocational choice. A man's vocational choice sets the pattern which he will follow the rest of his life.

Environmental information for the purposes of this paper is meant to include basic facts about the cultural setting, the impact of the new technology on the world of work and occupational information.

The purpose of this paper was to focus on the counselor's utilization of environmental information in vocational decision-making. Specifically, the paper has dealt with enhancing the counselor's understanding of the effect that life style, occupational opportunities and the psychological impact of change has on the decision-making process of each individual.

CHAPTER II

BASIC FACTS

Vocational Life Style Understanding

There are numerous factors involved in the environmental influences on vocational decision-making. The reader should become cognizant of these in order to better understand the problems that face the adolescent when making his vocational decisions.

Ginzberg states:

> Their (adolescents) environment obscures the appropriate translations of interests and capacities into realizable occupation choices . . . they believe that there is little that they can do (about vocational planning) beyond selecting a high school where they can pursue an appropriate vocational course. (11, p. 44)

The home, school, community, pressure groups, and the role perception the adolescent has for himself are all weighing factors in his vocational choice. According to Lipsett there needs to be little further

> documentation to demonstrate the importance of the home influences in vocational planning. Parents do a great deal to determine whether a child will be work orientated or a sluggard . . . (13, p. 46)

Baer and Roeber concur in the opinion that early childhood and its accompanying environment are instrumental in determining career choices when they state:

> From the time an infant is aware of himself and his environment, he is confronted with a constant flow of events involving people, things, and ideas. These events are real, direct contacts.

> In a few years, as he learns to talk, do things for himself, watch television, and then to read and write, he is exposed to an ever widening flow of events . . . . In some cases their different reactions may be due to psychological variations in eyes and neural systems, while in other responses to color and form are learned from or inhibited by experiences at home, at school, or in the community. Personal relationships in the home also seem to affect reactions to events. Cultural limitations may deprive individuals of some kinds of experiences and, at the same time, expose them to others . . . . His interests, abilities, values, and other characteristics are influenced by interaction with the flow of events. How he perceives occupational experiences and the conclusions he draws as a result are critical to career development and planning. (1, p. 2)

The school plays an important part in charting the vocational path of adolescents. A comprehensive curriculum may provide mobility of a young person beyond the life style which he presently knows.

Dramatic environmental contrasts exist between schools located in slum areas and schools located in suburbs. Conant has observed that because of the contrasts which exist, it is impossible for one to discuss education without specifying the kinds of homes from which the pupils come. (5, p. 136) From this observation, it is clearly seen that few generalizations about American education can be accurately made and applied universally. There are, for example, numerous differences in education in a Harlem school and education in an affluent suburban school on Staten Island.

During times when there are shortages of people within certain occupations, pressure groups such as trade unions, national professional groups, and other organizations

deliberately try to persuade young people to enter their profession or work field.

Super asserts that, "vocational development is essentially that of developing and implementing a self-concept." (14, p. 49) Though this concept may or may not be an accumulation of all other factors, the fact remains that if the adolescent should make a vocational decision that takes him out of the life-style understanding integrated as a part of his personality, he has increased the probility of his failure in that particular occupation.

John Holland draws together these areas in his "Theory of Vocational Choice" by saying,

> Essentially, the present theory assumes that at the time of vocational choice, the person is the product of the interaction of his particular heredity with a variety of cultural and personal forces including peers, parents, and significant adults, his social class, American culture, and the physical environment. (12, p. 127)

Psychological Impact of Change Upon Individuals

The heading of this topic implies that change in our environment will occur and that this change will have certain psychological impact on the individual affected by it. It follows then that through the knowledge of this environmental information the vocational counselor will be better equipped to help a student who may be affected by this psychological impact of change. The emphasis in this paper is on the low socio-economic, culturally deprived.

We as a nation, continue to move toward a higher degree of affluency than any one group in the history of the world. Our attitudes continue to change toward the inclusion of the masses to share in this state. As a survey of the literature and a compilation of reform legislation would certainly indicate, the greatest environmental changes will take place among the underprivileged. This indicates then that the greatest psychological impact will be felt among this group.

The unemployed, the unskilled, and semi-skilled workers who make up the bulk of this group of underprivileged, are more affected by the technological changes taking place than any other. The indications are that the technological changes that will affect this group will be even more evident in the future.

It is significant to note here that while these changes will affect individuals, as counselors we must be cognizant of the implications these changes will have for large groups of people. More specifically perhaps we must be aware of how these changes will affect whole subcultures within our society, especially those classed as underprivileged. The Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Mexicans, Indians, and various immigrant groups, etc. would all be examples of subcultures that most assuredly will be affected by change.

Consider, if you will, the psychological implications of a Negro male striving for a better life, who was brought

up in the throes of poverty, in a matrifocal family, with no father where the only money is a welfare check, which, in many cases is ill-used. To him education is not only considered useless but frowned on and made fun of by peers and family alike. In some segments of our less affluent society this example is the rule rather than the exception. In order for a Negro in the above circumstances to become a member of the affluent society, many changes are going to have to take place. A change in the value system of the individual would seem to be necessary. He must begin to perceive education, work, family, residence, movement geographically and psychologically, training and retraining, peer groups, dress, etc. In fact, his whole environmental concept is going to have to take on new dimensions. Needless to say, the psychological impacts of this readjustment have horizons beyond imagination.

Following are some factors of change primarily brought on by recent technological developments that may have varying degrees of psychological impact on different individuals in various subcultures:

1. A change in job opportunities in manufacturing to service work.

2. A change from nonskilled or semiskilled jobs to technical.

3. A change from having one job in a lifetime to several.

4. More mobility in terms of geographical changes in location.

5. A change from no education required to continuous education.

6. A change among certain groups of very limited vocational choice to virtual freedom of choice.

7. A change from poverty to some degree of affluency.

8. A change from one cultural setting to a different one.

The concept of directional mobility and all the attendant adjustments it implies for the worker is an important facet of the psychological impact of occurring changes.

> Out of ten workers whose fathers' occupations were at the professional level, only three had followed in their fathers' footsteps; four out of every ten were in manual occupations (unskilled, skilled, semiskilled). There is thus evidence of substantial downward mobility as well as upward mobility. (16, p. 77)

Opportunities and the Individual

One of the counselor's most difficult tasks is making his way into another person's understanding of reality. Anthropologist Dorothy Lee has expressed this human problem, which must surely be evident in our culturally heterogeneous schools, when she stated:

> It is difficult to realize that what we know about human nature, about motivation, about emotion, about satisfactions is not necessarily true of all human beings, but may be true only of the human beings who have been brought up within our own cultural framework. (9, p. 3)

With this thought in mind, it may be important to look critically at counselor's commonly expressed concern that counselees be "realistic" in their vocational planning.

In spite of some variation in social class background, there appears to be a tendency for teachers and counselors to adopt, if they do not already possess, middle class values. (4, p. 77) The resulting homogeneity in values may have some advantages, but the disadvantages, especially if teachers and counselors are not aware of the values they hold can create or perpetuate certain social problems within the school. (8, p. 144; 15, p. 15) The difficulties are accentuated with realization that traditional values are the foundation of Western culture and anything that weakens the prevailing values shakes traditional life. (6, p. 62)

The impact of traditional value patterns becomes relevant to analysis of opportunities and requirements in vocational decision-making with recognition of the overriding traditional value patterns among middle-class groups that are passed through the institutions of the school, church, and business establishment. Of special concern in this general middle class value orientation is the heritage of thinking known as Social Darwinism.

Today we no longer live within the economic framework in which Social Darwinism flourished, but the idea remains alive in the traditions of middle-class America. The catchwords of Social Darwinism were "struggle for existence"

and "survival of the fittest." This philosophy when applied to the life of man in society suggested that nature would provide that the best competitors in a competitive situation would win, and that the process would lead to continuing improvement. Life was envisioned as a set of arrangements that offered rewards to men of good character, while it punished those who were, in the Social Darwinist's view, shiftless, inefficient, and negligent. (7, pp. 3-12)

The Social Darwinist in our day would still insist that equal occupational opportunities exist for all youth and that the only job requirements necessary are innate ability and hard work. There is a tendency to disregard or discount the impact of culture, and environment, on the individual.

Any counselor who imagines he is out of sympathy with the Social Darwin ethic should examine his thinking closely, for counselors working in schools with middle-class value orientation must be capable of looking realistically at questions of equal vocational opportunity for all youth in light of their varied ethnic, racial, religious, economic, and social class background.

Traditionally, the attitude that a person can rise to any height that he so desires must be looked at critically and realistically in light of the facts of the work world. Studies have shown that a person cannot always reach the lofty goals to which he aspires. He is limited by the

circumstances that are beyond his control. The socio-economic status into which a person is born is a determining factor whether he wants to recognize it or not. The child of a professional or a successful businessman is more likely to follow his father's footsteps to success than is a person from the lower middle class. Some children from upper class backgrounds are inculcated with the idea from birth that they are leaders and are going into positions of responsibility. Usually they are able to reach these goals. Super explains it this way:

> Those who are born high on the scale tend to be more fortunate not only in biological but in social inheritance than those born lower on the ladder. Their environment is generally richer intellectually and emotionally, their achievement motivation is superior, their education is likely to be better and more complete, they are more apt to have contacts that will help them get started and get ahead, they have more capital to assist them in the process, and they receive higher wages and salaries. (19, p. 21)

The counselor can do much to help the student reach his full potential if time and effort are used to point out the opportunities that are available. No doubt the counselor is a contributing influence to many young people. Some homes do not give students the encouragement nor the insight to reach potential goals. This is due in a large part to the established patterns of life which are difficult to change. The counselor should, to a lesser extent, direct a part of his attention to the parents in an effort to illustrate the opportunities which lie ahead for their children.

The modern industrial structure is a factor that determines the static mobility of the modern young person. It is unusual for the young man to enter the business that his father owns and to assume leadership that is his by virtue of his birthright. It is also unusual for the striving young man to assume a management position in a business by hard work alone. Vance Packard, in a study of job classifications and the lack of mobility, made an analogy, stating:

> I would say that the class structure of the United States is more like a jungle gym than a ladder. Or to be more precise, in view of the gulf developing between the diploma elite and supporting classes, it is like two jungle gyms. One jungle gym is on the ground floor of a building. The other, directly above it, is on the second floor. To move from the lower jungle gym to the higher one, you must go inside and climb up the fire escape of higher education. (15, p. 22)

In general, workers can move upward on the ladder of success within the realm of the unskilled, semi-skilled, and skilled areas. However, it is unusual for these people to move outside these areas unless they arm themselves with additional formal education. It is necessary for the counselor to be aware of these conditions when he counsels with his students.

Young people who are planning to enter the labor force must recognize that they have a responsibility to society as well as to themselves. Those who have come from an environment which is not conducive to work are thus handicapped. The youth who enters the labor market with the attitude

that he has no need to further his training will find himself on a one way street that soon reaches an end. The average person, in the course of a lifetime, will change jobs several times. This necessitates a constant readjustment to the work environment. The enginner who started work a few years ago now finds that he is working with equipment that did not exist at the time that he was training for his position. The potential worker will best prepare himself when he acquires a good general education which will give him the basic tools with which to work. Of necessity, he will be required to utilize these tools to keep abreast of the developments that are constantly taking place.

Of no less importance to the novice in the work field is the ability to get along with the people with whom he works. Unfortunate is the young man who goes to work with the resentment, the beligerence, and the rejection of society which is often found in lower socio-economic groups. The apathy that accompanies this attitude will serve as a further deterrent to a successful adjustment to the work environment. The inability to adjust to other people is perhaps one of the most serious problems that a beginning worker must face. Tennyson states:

> One of the most alarming phenomena of our times is the failure of human beings to involve themselves with others. Recent incidences in several large cities attest to our total lack of concern when our fellow man is placed in physical jeopardy.

We are afraid of the risks of involvement with another. This failure to attend to, to be aware, reflects our more general inability to cope with an environment which we feel is beyond our control. We exist, but we don't; we are present, but we aren't; we listen, but we don't hear. In short, we give little of ourselves. The effect of technical progress, all too often, may be a living death. From a vocational point of view, the consequence may be unused capacities, unrecognized needs, and compartmentalized lives. Under such circumstances, the worker will do little more than participate; certainly he will not influence. A vocational developmental task of first importance is that of becoming a first-rate human being. (17, p. 41)

CHAPTER III

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

Assessment of Counselee Strengths, Abilities, Values

The counselor must familiarize himself with the vast array of devices and means of keeping informed of the vocational opportunities available to his counselees.

He must understand the opportunities and requirements for preparation and entry into these vocations sufficiently in order to enable him to aid the counselee in making a satisfactory vocational choice. The counselor should make the counselee aware of the inseparable relationship between his job choice and the resultant life style which it dictates.

The counselor should be sufficiently prepared to enable him to assist the counselee in the process of self-analysis. The process of vocational choice will bear greatly on a thorough assessment of the many personal qualities of the counselee; i.e., strengths, abilities, values, etc. A skillful counselor helps the counselee to honestly and accurately assess these qualities and to make comparisons in light of the demands of the potential vocations.

Flux of Technology and Flexibility of the Individual

In this age of technological change, employment opportunities are in a constant state of flux. The counselor must, therefore, help the counselee develop an understanding

attitude and an acceptance of the necessity for change. With this acceptance comes the knowledge that the life style of the individual must also change. Adjustments in the living pattern are, therefore, imminent if the individual is to remain in the occupational mainstream.

The counselor must possess personal qualities of awareness, intelligence and flexibility if he is to continually keep in tune with the rapidly changing scene of the world of work. If the counselor can convey this attitude of flexibility to the counselee, the greater will be the benefits of the total process.

Choosing Vocations within Life Style

While income, life style, and other environmental factors tend to limit job choice, there appears to be an increasing opportunity for occupational mobility. Mobility can be up, down, or horizontal. It is important to assist the counselee in reaching realistic vocational decisions regardless of the direction of movement.

Freedom of choice is generally accepted as part of our democratic way of life. We realize, however, that choice has its limiting factors. One role of the counselor's is to help free his counselees from these limitations and allow as much freedom of choice as possible. Educators in all areas and at all levels should become more aware of the problems involved in relating environment to educational and to vocational decision-making. A real challenge is

presented to the educator in preparing his students to adapt to changing scientific, technological, and social cultures which will affect their lives.

Educational Responsibility for Adaptation to Change

Change is characteristic to our society. The counselor must take into consideration the fact that initial vocational decisions may be only the first of several; the counselee's environment may change several times within an occupational lifetime.

The counselor should help parents become more aware of available opportunities. The idea here is that many children are limited by the goals set for them by their parents.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Today we have new concepts and ways of thinking about the individual and his environment. These new concepts are not yet fully defined and understood as they may be in the future, but their implications for today are gradually being recognized.

It is now possible, for example, to conceive of man living in a multidimensional environment which has many potentialities of which social order, human culture, and man himself are products. But man need no longer be seen only as a passive reactor to a superhuman cultural system once considered final and unchanging. There is a growing awareness of human capacity to control and change the culture which, in turn, influences human beliefs and behavior. This viewpoint, once understood, may bring tremendous opportunities for freedom never possible under older beliefs in supernaturally imposed culture.

The role of environment, according to new interpretations, is to permit or help the individual to realize his own potentialities. Environment can be altered to serve persons rather than persons serving environment. In this same sense, environment does not create human potential but merely facilitates human development. The school and

the counselor do not create human potential, but as environmental agents serving as part of the actual environment of students, they help create situations in which human characteristics are actualized. Environment, then, can be changed to meet human needs.

Within this context, application of new knowledge in the behavioral sciences holds out great possibilities for serving youth. Behavioral science has demonstrated that human beings have psychological as well as physiological needs. These needs are related to each other on a priority basis. As high priority needs are satisfied, greater attention will be turned to other needs which, when met, will permit the individual to concern himself with still other needs, and so on, leading in a developmental way toward higher levels of humanization and self-fulfillment.

In terms of vocational decision-making, it becomes apparent that rationalized management of environment can create possibilities for directly effecting vocational opportunities. But probably more significant are the indirect effects on vocational decision-making resulting from behavioral change in individuals who are the benefactors of rational designs that eliminate undesirable environmental restrictions.

Manipulation of the social and physical environment in the school and community can proceed on the basis of our growing knowledge of significant interaction between the

individual and his culture. School counselors should continue to be concerned about helping individuals adjust to circumstance, but they also should be more directly involved in affecting positive change in environment of individuals.

The philosophical issues raised by direct application of behavioral science in environmental management are apparent. It may be argued that environmental management will reduce the individual to an automaton. On the other hand, it may be argued that environmental manipulation holds out the possibility of freeing individuals who are presently captives of narrow cultural restraints. In fact, failure to apply rational designs for management of environment might be interpreted as inhuman and immoral.

At any rate, the possibilities for affecting change in behavior and change in circumstances of individuals are too great to be overlooked by educators. Counselors and other school personnel are charged with the responsibility of studying the issues and fully examining their own beliefs in light of evidence available.

REFERENCES

1. Baer, M. F. and E. C. Roeber. Occupational Information. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1964.

2. Borow, Henry (ed). Man in a World at Work. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1964.

3. Borow, Henry (ed). Man in a World at Work. (Boston: 1964), citing Man, Work, and Society. New York Basic Books, 1962.

4. Brameld, Theodore. Cultural Foundations of Education. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957.

5. Conant, James B. Slums and Suburbs. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

6. Henry, Jules. Culture Against Man. New York: Random House, 1963.

7. Hofstadter, Richard. Social Darwinism in American Thought. Boston: Beacon Press, 1944.

8. Kvaraceus, William C. Delinquent Behavior: Culture and the Individual. Washington: National Education Association, 1959.

9. Lee, Dorothy. Freedom and Culture. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1959.

10. Peters, H. J. and J. C. Jansen. Vocational Guidance and Career Development. New York: MacMillan Co., 1966.

11. Peters, H. J. and J. C. Hansen. Vocational Guidance and Career Development. (New York: 1966), citing Ginzburg, Occupational Choice. Columbia University Press, 1951.

12. Peters, H. J. and J. C. Hansen. Vocational Guidance and Career Development. (New York: 1966), citing Holland, "The Classification of Occupations." Journal of Applied Psychology, 1953.

13. Peters, H. J. and J. C. Hansen. Vocational Guidance and Career Development. (New York: 1966), citing Lipsett, "Social Factors in Vocational Development." The Personnel and Guidance Journal, January 1962.

14. Peters, H. J. and J. C. Hansen. Vocational Guidance and Career Development. (New York: 1966), citing Super, "A Theory of Vocational Development." American Psychologist, 1953.

15. Riessman, Frank. The Culturally Deprived Child. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1962.

16. Super, Donald, et al. Vocational Development. New York: Columbia University Press, 1957.

17. Tennyson, Wesley. The Teacher's Role in Career Development. Washington: National Vocational Guidance Association, 1965.

18. Tennyson, Wesley. The Teacher's Role in Career Development. (Washington: 1965), citing Packard, The Status Seekers. David Company, 1959.

19. Tennyson, Wesley. The Teacher's Role in Career Development. (Washington: 1965), citing Super, The Psychology of Careers. Harper and Brothers, 1957.

REALITY TESTING OF VOCATIONAL DECISIONS

A Report

Submitted in

Partial Fulfillment of the Course Requirements

of Guidance 400

by

John P. McCarthy, Co-Chairman
David Yahnig, Co-Chairman
Bruce Gould, Co-Secretary
John M. Zeug, Co-Secretary
Bill Britson
Adair Callison
Russell Frid
Allen Kelsay
Ralph Onarheim
Dermot J. Schnack

July 1966

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM	1
	Reality Testing--Defined	2
	Statement of the Problem	3
II	BASIC FACTS	4
	Developmental Task Concept	4
	Opportunities for Reality Testing	4
	Work-Experience Programs	5
	Reality Testing and Job Satisfaction	7
III.	IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL COUNSELING	8
	Need for Reality Testing	8
	Orientation Activities	9
	Exploratory Experiences	10
	Educational Experiences for Reality Testing	11
	Employment Information and Reality Testing	13
	Counseling as a Reality Testing Experience	13
IV.	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	15
	Summary and Conclusions	15
	Recommendations	16
V.	BIBLIOGRAPHY	18

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM

In the complicated process of vocational development, the need for quality decisions and choices is important to both the individual and to society. Vocational choice is a continuous process involving a series of related decisions which the student makes for himself. These decisions may be put to increasingly severe reality tests. Performance in these "tests" and reactions to them enable the individual to confirm or modify his choices and decisions.

Vocational decision-making is a part of the learning process. The student evaluates past experiences and attempts to predict his future performance. This might be called self-appraisal; a number of these transactions constitute his self-concept. It is stated that, " . . . an individual's self-concept plays a reciprocal role--self-concept shapes his choices and is shaped by them." (6, p. 6)

The same process involved in the individual's development of a behavior repertoire apply to the process of vocational decision-making. Callis (2) in his paper, "Toward an Integrated Theory of Counseling," describes this process in detail. In brief, the development of a behavior repertoire consists of three elements based on the needs of the individual-- first, experience, second, the individual's interpretation of the experience, which is called perception. The third element is generalization, or the tendency to group similar perception and draw

one rule from the whole class of events. Furthermore, this is a continuous process subject to change and modification.

Callis' theory may be expanded to include conceptualization, differentiation, evaluation (reality testing), and finally integration--when the choice or decision becomes a part of the individual's behavior.

Other dimensions of vocational decision-making are readiness (individual's attitudes, values, and behavior with respect to occupations and vocational planning), ability (individual's ability to estimate future educational and occupational success) and freedom (freedom of the individual to make decisions and pursue them), all of which must be taken into account when counseling with a student who is trying to make a vocational decision. (14, pp. 263-266)

A knowledge of social needs and values combined with self-understanding will enhance the student's freedom of choice. The counselor assists in the process of choosing, and with this help, the student will hopefully choose the line of greatest advantage rather than the path of least resistance. The impact of our free enterprise system together with social, environmental and psychological factors also has an effect upon vocational decision-making.

For the purpose of this paper, the discussion will be focused upon one phase of the decision-making process--namely, reality testing.

Reality Testing--Defined

Reality testing is an evaluative process which may be included in orientation activities, work experiences (in school and out), classroom exploratory experiences or vicarious experiences which will permit the individual to compare his perceptions with the realities of the

occupation concerned. In the light of this experience, he may decide to change, modify, or more completely commit himself to his vocational choice.

Statement of the Problem

With the preceding introductory comments in mind, the problem of this paper is stated as follows:

What role does "reality testing" play in vocational decision-making?

For school counselors, other questions are raised when considering the dimensions of reality testing. For example, what kinds of experiences are most meaningful as "reality tests" for the students? What are schools doing now to provide "reality tests"? What are some new and different thoughts for additional experiences as "reality tests" for students? What is the role of the counselor in "reality testing"? How can the counselor involve others to improve "reality testing"?

CHAPTER II

BASIC FACTS

Developmental Task Concept

Super (11, pp. 80-128) provides for a functional approach to the subject of reality testing. He suggests a firm basis from the standpoint of timeliness for application of the principle of reality testing to developmental tasks encountered at the various levels of growth of individuals. His stages of growth concept lends itself to better understanding of when to provide the student with opportunities for reality testing. Ideally, opportunities for reality testing should be provided at all levels of development, but they probably would be more meaningful if they were made available during the Growth Stage (birth to age 14) or during the Exploratory Stage (age 14 to 24). Super also explains that there are three distinct substages of development during the Exploratory Stage. They are the tentative stage (age 14-18), the transition stage (age 18-21), and the tryout stage (age 21-25). Planning experiences in reality testing situations according to the time schedule suggested by Super, Miller, and others seems to provide some answers to the problems presented in this paper.

Opportunities for Reality Testing

Providing youth with opportunities for subjecting their vocational choice(s) to reality testing has long been accepted as a vital part of American education, and as an area of concern for the counselor. Parsons (9) discussed vocational counseling as a process of helping the individual

to study both himself and possible occupational opportunities, and to work out a compromise between his abilities, interests, and opportunities. This process, which Parsons called "true reasoning" may be conceived of as the forerunner of the reality testing concept.

In the intervening years since Parsons, the main problem encountered by the schools in providing the opportunities for reality testing has been to provide the necessary realistic, or real-life experiences.

Among the many activities offered have been role-playing, visits to places of work, occupation units in the classroom, orientation activities, talks by representatives of various occupations, and other similar activities. While each of these have potential value to the student, they seem to have several weaknesses in common: They are short-lived, artificially contrived, and often directed by persons who fail to appreciate the potential value. In addition, objective evaluations of their value are extremely difficult to make. Perhaps as a result of these weaknesses, new and diverse opportunities for providing reality testing experiences have been developed. One of these is work-experience programs; others will be discussed in Chapter III.

Work-Experience Programs

Educators have long been aware of the importance of actual work experience as an integral part of many high school courses. School work which combines a job with study has been practiced in some high schools for more than thirty years. (5, p. 29) Some facts relating to this type of program follow.

A recent survey of 119 public secondary schools showed that

one-third of the pupils in these schools were gainfully employed while attending school. Placement and work experience are factors in the educational program of our schools and the schools, in turn, must be interested in the job placement of our students. (5, p. 29) (13, p. 5)

Cooperative work-study programs have been given increased impetus by legislation such as the Vocational Education Act of 1963. This growth of work-experience programs is illustrated by the following:

> In a survey of work-experience education programs published by the U. S. Office of Education in 1957, 145 items in the working bibliography of 276 items were produced after 1950. More than 200 articles, books, and research reports on work-experience education have been published since 1941. (1, p. 160)

The following types of work experience are now found in secondary schools:

1. In-school, remunerative general education work experience programs.
2. Out-of-school, nonremunerative general education work experience programs.
3. Remunerative general education work-experience programs at the junior high school level.
4. Remunerative general education work-experience programs for pupils in senior high school.
5. Remunerative vocational work experience in senior high schools not subsidized by federal vocational education funds.
6. Remunerative vocational work-experience programs in high schools subsidized by federal vocational education funds. (1, pp. 160-161)

Reality Testing and Job Satisfaction

A growing number of studies have been concerned with examining the underlying sources of job satisfaction that are available to the worker in his environment. These various studies have found that the workers often lack a sense of commitment to the job; that they view work as imposed, not enjoyed, as negative rather than positive; and that need-satisfying and self-actualizing job elements are lacking. (4, p. 426)

Because numerous opportunities for reality testing are provided by the schools, and in view of the adult job dissatisfaction demonstrated in numerous studies, (4, p. 426) a number of implications for counseling are apparent. These are discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER III

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

Need for Reality Testing

Vocational decision-making in early adolescence has received considerable attention from many writers reporting on research in this subject. Super (10, p. 328) and others have attempted to determine the relative consistency of vocational choice during the late junior high school and early senior high school years. In his report on vocational choice, he states that Schmidt and Rothney uncovered convincing evidence on the instability of expressed vocational preference from grade 9 through 12. This would seem to indicate that a number of variables are present during this period and that more opportunities for reality testing of these decisions should be provided. Increased emphasis on making tentative choices and testing these choices to the satisfaction of the student certainly would go a long way toward reducing the instability present during this period. Friedenburg (3, p. 144), in his discussion of the establishment of self-esteem in adolescence, points out that "the purpose of guidance, after all, is to help students to see themselves clearly and realistically . . ." This same writer (3, pp. 217-218) takes the schools to task for not helping the adolescent develop good, specific reasons for thinking well of himself and developing a stable identity along with a stable self to respect.

Orientation Activities

American Guidance Services, Inc. (15) published a series of orientation programs designed by Wrenn, Hein, and Schwarzrock to provide students with more opportunity to apply the principle of reality testing to many areas which contain those variables which are vital to the development of realistic perceptions and/or conceptions. The quality of vocational decision-making can be improved considerably by the establishment and maintenance of well-planned, systematic orientation programs.

The opportunities for reality testing and development of role models should be provided in such areas as purposes and objectives of school orientation programs, including: curriculum planning; extra-curricular activities; study habits; academic research; management of leisure time and school time; grading systems; getting along with others; personal health and appearance; etiquette, manners and courtesy; responsibility toward others, for property, for country, and for self; responsibilities of leadership; self-respect and self-confidence; mental health; problem-solving techniques; family life and style; the hierarchy of occupations; aptitude, interests and abilities; job requirements and the placement process; community agencies and the services they provide, etc. One could compile a seemingly never-ending list of human concerns which constantly need to be tested in a practical, changing and often seemingly paradoxical world.

Reality testing is a continuous process in the life of the individual. Life experiences in the home, the school and the community provide opportunities for self-understanding and self-insight.

Specifically, the school curriculum offers opportunities for both concrete and vicarious experiences which either confirm or reject perceptions and concepts. Both in the classroom and in co-curricular activities, students learn about themselves and their "fit" in terms of competencies and limitations. They are provided with activities in which interests, abilities and aptitudes are discovered or are "put to the test."

Exploratory Experiences

Wellman (14, pp. 251-267) provides valuable insights into the appropriateness and value of exploratory activities for ninth grade vocational decision-making. He explains that "typical ninth graders are clearly in an exploratory stage, not in a decision-making stage, of vocational development." He continues by stating that "broad career orientation will facilitate the making of the specific curricular choices required by our educational system. It should not require specific occupational decisions per se." A significant statement by Wellman (14, p. 265) provides further insight into the nature of vocational choice and its relationship to exploratory experiences as follows:

> The dangers of too much precision too early can be avoided, however, if the decisions of ninth grade students focused upon tentative determination of (1) general educational level goals, e. g., completion of high school, college or technical institutions; (2) broad curricula goals, e. g., college preparatory . . . vocational, etc., and (3) broad vocational goals, e.g., physical or biological sciences, arts, social services, etc. This type of vocational planning at the ninth grade level permits extensive exploratory testing of abilities and interests, and leaves room for substantial modifications as progress is made toward more precise decisions later. (underlining added)

Certainly, Wellman's concept of vocational choice as being tentative points up the importance of providing students with the

opportunity for reality testing of interim perceptions and concepts which they have developed in the process of "becoming" mature adults who are capable of self-direction in a "real" situation. There are an unlimited number of exploratory activities at each level of the student's development.

Evidence of what schools can do to provide students with more effective exposure to the reality of work is going on in many schools. An example of this is a high school that makes provisions in its curriculum for vocational classes to construct and completely furnish a house. Not only do they provide their students with a challenge, but they also expose them to meaningful work experiences. (12)

Educational Experiences for Reality Testing

Because there are other dimensions of reality testing other than vicarious experiences, it is helpful to think of specific programs or activities in which a student tests the reality of a tentative decision or tests concepts about himself as a person in the working world. While part-time work may be considered an important part of reality testing and a valuable source of self-insight and knowledge about a specific occupation, there are many other educational experiences which also provide a stage for testing. Co-curricular activities, such as the school newspaper, play production, and others, have elements which are aspects of work or job orientation. In these areas, students try out their interests, abilities, and aptitudes in meeting responsibilities found in employment.

Within the vocational education curriculum, students find opportunities for reality testing. The training itself assists the

individual to evaluate both himself and the occupational area for which he is preparing. Vocational education also provides, in many cases, opportunities for cooperative experiences of related school training and on-the-job experiences. These are vocational education programs in which the on-the-job aspect provides nearly all the actual training, whereas, the typical vocational program is one in which training at school receives the major emphasis and the on-the-job activities supplement the in-school experience. Additional adaptations of the in-school and on-the-job training are found throughout the nation.

An example of a program in which there is a dimension of reality testing is the Occupational Work Experience Program developed in Ohio. (3, p. 1) This program was initiated in Warren, Ohio, in 1961, in cooperation with the Ohio Department of Education and is now available throughout the state.

> The Occupational Work Experience Program is a planned program on either a one or two year basis to assist the identifiable limited ability student (I. Q. 75-89) to find a place in employment at the unskilled or operator level. The major objective is one of job placement combined with school work, both aimed at helping the student become a productive citizen and continue his education as long as possible.

Programs of this type are offered in many states either as separate programs or as a part of a vocational education curriculum. (4)

Although the intention of the Congress was not to provide youth with opportunities for reality testing per se, the various federally-funded programs provide youth with opportunities for reality testing.

It is evident, then, that opportunities for reality testing are varied in nature and broad in scope. Students may seek and find concrete

and vicarious testing experiences in private and public institutions, in formal and informal situations, as well as in school and out of school. Thus, the counselor's task is to aid the individual as he seeks to find meaning in experience and to understand the implications for occupational choice and vocational development.

Employment Information and Reality Testing

Several members of the study group report that they utilize the services of the State Employment Security Office counselors in a variety of ways designed to help students develop a better understanding of labor market conditions. One school reports that they schedule each senior who expects to enter the labor market for two individual interviews with employment counselors and all attend at least one group session. A current report on labor trends, training opportunities, and employment opportunities is presented to each student. An effort is made to place each student who desires employment in a full-time position or training situation immediately after graduation.

In addition to the training and employment services provided students, this activity has made it possible for the student to "test" his concept or perception of the employment situation. Many have decided to seek post high school training as a result of new perceptions and conceptions developed after this experience.

Counseling as a Reality Testing Experience

Guidance programs and counseling interviews provide the student with opportunities to learn about himself, his feelings, and his strengths and weaknesses in relation to proposed or future courses of

action. The testing program offers a valuable fund of data for the student, his parents, teachers, and the school counselor in assessing the possible outcomes of future experiences. Occupational information is a potential source of information about the reality of certain aspects of the world of work. The interaction between the student and his perceptions based upon previous experience creates the sum and substance of vicarious experiencing and reality testing within the confines of counseling.

During the counseling interview, the counselor acts as a catalyst. At this point, the student is attempting to confirm, refute, or modify his perceptions or concepts of reality. He may believe that the counselor, because of greater experience, training, or knowledge, is in a position to help "test" in a real sense his ideas relative to a decision or choice he is in the process of making. In the final analysis, reality testing under these conditions becomes a personal matter, bringing to bear all the attributes and experiences which are unique to each person. Hence, reality testing becomes an invaluable instrument for improving the quality of perceptions or concepts which must necessarily lead to more stability in vocational choice.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Reality testing is an evaluative process in which individuals learn about the wisdom of their choices and decisions by putting them to the test of reality. Typically, reality testing is unplanned and probably not analyzed. School programs have a variety of situations in which reality testing takes place within the curriculum and as co-curricular activities. This evaluative process is a by-product of the experience and not the major purpose.

Conclusions

Although reality testing had its beginning in a psychological construct for vocational decision-making which was presented by Callis in his paper, "Toward an Integrated Theory of Counseling," it has a definite place in our modern educational system as a tool for helping students develop realistic perceptions as they progress from tentative choices toward a decision which is characterized by stability, self-actualization, and provides the individual, the community, and the nation with a more productive and worthwhile citizen.

In response to questions posed at the beginning of this paper, we can present with reasonable accuracy the following conclusions:

1. Reality testing plays a vital part in vocational decision-making at each level of development.

2. Learning experiences which are most meaningful are those which are based upon vicarious experiences and others which provide the student with an opportunity to test his concept or generalization.
3. School programs are providing an ever-increasing number of reality testing experiences for students. These programs are being developed on a local level with considerable support from the state and federal levels.
4. The counselor is in a key position to guide the student during the developmental process toward his goal of more realistic choices. The counseling interview, orientation activities, and the counselor's position as a school coordinator makes it possible for him to utilize all resources available.

It was evident during this study that additional scientific research in the area of reality testing is needed.

Recommendations

The concept of reality testing has enough validity to encourage us to recommend that the concept be "broadcast." Specifically, school counselors can provide teachers and community leaders with an understanding of reality testing. Hopefully, publicity of this nature will provide a significant segment of the community with the working knowledge which will permit them to assist youth in the process of vocational choice. We may find businessmen who will begin to look upon their role as one which is broader than just employing a school student for a few hours.

We also recommend that school counselors, teachers, and concerned civic leaders look for situations in which reality testing may take place. The situations identified, both in-school and out-of-school, may need to be critically examined so as to achieve the maximum benefit from reality testing. We further recommend that a planned program in which vicarious experiences (those in the classroom and in counseling) be balanced with concrete experiences. Thus, the co-curricular program, activities program, or service projects begin to take on an added dimension. Those assigned to assist in the vocational decision-making process should be alert to the fact that student behavior is not only subject to change, but is in a continuous process of change.

In addition, we recommend that school counselors assist teachers in identifying classroom reality testing situations. Thus, teachers may be encouraged to see their work in a broader perspective and may use this perspective to expand educational objectives to include affective as well as cognitive outcomes.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Burchill, George W. Work-Study Programs for Alienated Youth. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1962.

2. Callis, Robert. "Toward an Integrated Theory of Counseling," Counseling Readings in Theory and Practice. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1962.

3. Friedenberg, Edgar Z. The Vanishing Adolescent. New York: Dell Publishing Company, Inc., 1962.

4. Friedlander, Frank. "Underlying Sources of Job Satisfaction," Vocational Guidance and Career Development. New York: Macmillan Company, 1966.

5. Hollis, J. W. "Placement in the Secondary School," School Counselor. Washington: Winter, 1955.

6. Katz, Martin. "The Role of the Guidance Counselor," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Washington: September, 1963.

7. McGowan, John and Lee Schmidt. Counseling Readings in Theory and Practice. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1962.

8. Ohio, State of, Department of Education. Occupational Work Experience Program. Trade and Industrial Education Instructional Materials Laboratory, The Ohio State University, Columbus: 1964.

9. Parsons, Frank. Choosing a Vocation. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1909.

10. Peters, Herman J. and James C. Hansen (eds.). Vocational Guidance and Career Development. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.

11. Super, Donald E. The Psychology of Careers. New York: Harper and Row, 1957.

12. Superior (Wisconsin) Telegram, May 12, 1966.

13. United States Department of Labor, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training. "Young Workers: Their Special Training Needs," Manpower Research Bulletin Number Three. Washington: Government Printing Office, May 1963.

14. Wellman, Frank E. "Vocational Counseling of Adolescents: A Critical Look," Vocational Guidance and Career Development. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.

15. Wrenn, Gilbert, and others. Planned Group Guidance. Minneapolis: American Guidance Service, Inc., 1961.

THE USE OF ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL INFORMATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT AND IMPROVEMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES

A Report

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for Guidance 400

by

Jerry Bolmeier, Co-Chairman
Bruce H. Gould, Co-Chairman
Garland Longhofer, Co-Secretary
David Yahnig, Co-Secretary
Allen Kelsay
John P. McCarthy
W. L. Redmon
Bob Stinson
Roger Webb
John Zeug

Summer 1966

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

Recently education has been given a new meaning in our society. With the onset of current Federal legislation, making available far-reaching opportunities for education in our country, never has the administrative function of our schools been more vital. In 1956, one hundred twenty-nine million was spent by the Federal Government in assistance to the states for their educational programs. In 1966, three billion plus is being spent for the same purpose. The proper and most expedient use of these funds fall into the hands of the school administration.

Before these opportunities can be manifested, certain basic educational goals or objectives must be formed. In attempting to reach these goals, the administrator must consider all facets of the educational program. The proper placement of certain inter-disciplinary thoughts and concepts and their ramifications on the program is of paramount importance. Educators are charged, therefore, with the responsibility of examining how culture changes, how education shares in the changes taking place, and whether education should contribute more actively to the new directions of society. The educator must assume a willingness to examine traditional beliefs and assumptions about man, nature, and social order if there is to be an effective alteration in education. At no other time in the history of public education have administrators faced a greater necessity for understanding newly discovered frontiers of knowledge in the social and behavioral sciences.

In developing an effective educational program, economic and social factors need to be identified and studied. Socioeconomic variables such as level of income, status symbols in the community, social class structure of school neighborhoods, minority group acceptance in the social structure of the community, job opportunities in the immediate area, as well as other factors, are all significant in determining variation in educational opportunities. By gathering, disseminating and interpreting these social and economic facts along with psychological information, new light may be shed on the needs of individual students within the school setting.

With these thoughts in mind, the purpose of this paper will be to indicate how administrative, curricular and guidance procedures in the school may be affected by the use of economic, social and psychological information. Special attention will be given to the responsibility of the guidance workers in the use of this data.

CHAPTER II

RELATIONSHIP OF ECONOMIC, SOCIOLOGICAL, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL INFORMATION TO EDUCATION

In looking at the total educational program, an appropriate vocational decision is an objective to be achieved by each student separating from the school. Views and concepts related to how these decisions are arrived at have taken on new dimensions.

Super points out that the term "vocational counselor" is obsolete. Those who had this title are now concerned with curriculum as well as vocations, placement in schools as well as placement on jobs, socio-economic adjustments as well as vocational adjustments. (1, p. 557)

As social scientists have provided insight relative to the nature of our socioeconomic structure, and as behavioral scientists have provided insight relative to how individual behavior is affected by variables brought about by this structure, leaders in the area of guidance are concerned with how the counselor fits into all of this. Because of the counselor's involvement in the life plans of people who are and will continue to be influenced by the subject variables, it seems imperative that he be aware of them and be able to interpret their significance to school administrators.

The following collection of quotations will focus the reader's attention on a number of economic, social, and psychological factors which should be significant to counselors. This is not presumed to be complete. It will be of value when the reader uses it as a limited

review of certain data and as a point of departure to which he can add data of his own. Categorization of economic, social, and psychological dimensions is avoided, for all of them tend to integrate to produce an influence on individual behavior and values.

> One out of four dropouts was unemployed in 1961. (12, p. 14)
>
> People with a better education are not only likely to earn more, but they are likely to see their earnings rise for a longer period than those with limited schooling. (13, p. 12)
>
> Young workers having completed less than eight years of school will have seven times the unemployment rate of college graduates. (13, p. 9)
>
> The fact that a youth doesn't have a college degree may mean he cannot get into the professions and sciences. But it doesn't mean he can't get a good job and have a satisfactory life. (2)
>
> Another result of the changing labor force and the changing conditions of work is that the demands of certain jobs on the time, energy, and personal commitment of the individual have decreased. (1, p. 225)
>
> Even when nonwhite youth have high school diplomas, their unemployment rate is about double that for white graduates. (12, p. 9)
>
> From 1947 to 1962, the number of married women in the labor force doubled, accounting for more than half of total labor force growth. (12, p. 14)
>
> Many of the schools are oriented toward local labor market needs, whereas their training should be directed toward preparing students for a national labor market because young workers have the highest mobility. (9, p. 6)
>
> Generally, migratory youth enter school later, attend classes fewer days, achieve the least progress, drop out of school earliest, and constitute the nation's largest single reservoir of illiterates. (12, p. 13)
>
> Cultural change must be given careful consideration by the adult assisting the pupil who may be making decisions on the basis of today's situation in contrast to the adult's cultural situation yesterday. (5, p. 15)

An adolescent reared in a bilingual home finds himself faced with the difficult problem of having to live simultaneously in two contrasting if not conflicting cultures. A bilingual home is often a culturally unassimilated home. (7, p. 113)

When the masses of children from disadvantaged cultures are confronted by the demand for speed in learning materials which are intrinsically lacking in motivating power, they become retarded. (4, p. 33)

The broken home is in general a focal point of adolescent maladjustment. (7, p. 115)

Curves of mental growth, as reported in the literature, are usually composites of many individual curves and tend to conceal the wide individual differences characteristic of mental growth. (7, p. 473)

To turn tomorrow's generation loose in a dynamic social pattern without help in developing a wholesome attitude toward change is obviously an educational error of omission. (6, p. 27)

As more and more young people get diplomas, dropouts are made up of an increasing proportion of youngsters with low I. Q.'s, emotional problems, or a lack of motivation. As a result, these characteristics might come to be attributed to all dropouts--by the public, by employers, and by society that is quick to pass harsh and sweeping judgments. (11, p. 3)

At least one-third of our total population consists of slum dwellers, tenant farmers, and farm laborers. These sixty million of our people, white and Negro, have children who do not learn well in our schools as they now operate. (4, p. 29)

From the preceding quotations, it becomes apparent that there is a genuine need for all people concerned with the education of youth to develop a true understanding of the importance that economic, social, and psychological factors have on individuals in the process of decision-making. Without this understanding, there will be ineffective organization and administration of the educational program.

Implications relative to the inter-disciplinary approach together with methods of gathering, disseminating, and interpreting data will be the subject for Chapter III.

CHAPTER III

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

In dealing with the problem of structure and procedures to utilize economic, social, and psychological information as an administrative tool in vocational decision-making, we must establish a working basis or firm foundation from which to begin. Tiedeman provides such a frame of reference. He points out that,

> Guidance . . . can exist only within a process of liberating education. . . . Guidance is an integral part of, and also dependent upon, such education. Education, in other words, is not synonomous with either teaching or learning. Nor is education only the interaction of teacher and learner. Rather it involves the full transaction resulting from a mutual pursuit of something desired by students and teachers alike. Teaching, learning, guidance--all are necessary to such education, but none is sufficient by itself or in partial combination. (10, p. 489)

The guidance function within our educational program is, fundamentally, a service to students--but it is also a service to teachers, parents, school administrators, and the community which designs and supports it. Since this paper deals, specifically, with implications of the use of economic, social and psychological information in administering the education program, the discussion will be limited to this subject.

The preceding chapter should convince the reader that there is a definite relationship between the disciplines selected for discussion, namely, economics, sociology, and psychology, to education. If the proposition stated by Conant (3, p. 40) "that in a heavily urbanized and industrialized free society the educational experiences of youth should fit their subsequent employment" is true, we must come to grips

with the problem of providing our schools with the equipment necessary to get this job done. Information about occupational trends, training and employment opportunities, and the complex, ever-changing job structure within major professions, businesses, and industries, is extremely important in preparing youth for the world in which he must live. On the other hand, as important as this information may be, it cannot be used by itself--we must consider social and psychological information along with it.

Examples of the effective utilization of three-dimensional information in our schools may be illustrated as follows:

Student "A" lives in a small Midwestern mining community and he aspires to a profession in the diplomatic corps. He has consistently performed at a well above-average level in his school work. A foreign language is spoken in the home, and as a result, this student has developed a particular interest in languages and is well on his way to mastering several. His family is considered to be on the lower end of the social ladder, but he has been told that he possesses considerable academic promise. On the other hand, the student is deficient in such areas as acculturation, economic resources, personal appearance, and ability to get along with others. Unless the school program provides an opportunity for the student to develop an awareness of employment and/or educational opportunities, training requirements, social and cultural limitations, and specific abilities required for various occupations, and knowledge of self, i. e., strengths, weaknesses, personal characteristics, he cannot make a stable, realistic vocational choice.

Another example of how policy, or more appropriately, lack of policy, limits the occupational choice and preparation of students was found in a large, comprehensive, suburban high school. Department chairmen were asked, in effect, "What quartile (top, 2nd, 3rd, 4th),on the basis of ability level, is required of a student with normal motivation to succeed in the subjects in your department?" When viewed in the light of existing curricular offerings and the schedule of classes, department chairmen indicated that the school offered the number of subjects and the number of classes available during a day to each quartile of grades 10,11, and 12 as follows:

Number of Subjects Available

	Top Quartile	2	3	4
Grade 10	21	27	22	12
Grade 11	43	45	30	12
Grade 12	50	51	28	14

Number of Classes Available During a Day

	Top Quartile	2	3	4
Grade 10	68	78	63	33
Grade 11	120	125	86	33
Grade 12	140	142	89	41

Required subjects of social studies, English and physical education and elective subjects of band, driver education and choir are not included in the totals.

The ability level of the students as determined by the results of a standardized test is as follows: (Averages are for grades 11 and 12.)

Top Quartile	2	3	4
27.5%	28.5%	29.5%	14.5%

It is obvious that this closely resembles a mathematically derived quartile grouping, and more important, suggests the full range of student ability level found in the public schools.

From the data, it is apparent that:

1. Students with below-average ability do not have the same opportunity to achieve success as do students with above-average ability.
2. If the level of ability desired by the department chairman is adhered to, the number of students in classes suitable for below-average students would far outnumber those in classes for above-average students.

This situation lends credence to the expressed opinion of many that high school curriculums emphasize the educational opportunity of the above-average-college-bound student. This, in and of itself, cannot be criticized for obvious reasons. However, if the emphasis is at the expense of the below-average student, it would certainly be contrary to the fundamental aims of education. In addition, the theory that teachers may tend to impose middle class academic and cultural standards and to uphold them as ideal may have further justification.

Studies relative to the social dynamics which are present in the community can be undertaken with a view toward providing education

experiences which would be consistent with values, attitudes and behavior patterns. Fortunately, most school systems have recognized the importance of psychological information and have undertaken to use this information effectively; however, there is much to be desired in the socioeconomic area.

Lipsett suggests the following is an example of local data that would be valuable in the formulation of school objectives and counseling practices:

1. Social Class Membership--The facts that identify the counselee's social class, including occupation and income of parents, education of parents, place and type of residence, and ethnic background.

2. Home Influences--Goals that parents have for the counselee, place among siblings, influence of siblings, role of counselee in the family, family values and counselee's acceptance of them.

3. School--Scholastic achievement, relationship with peers and with faculty, group goals and values in the school, vocational specialization if any.

4. Community--Group goals and values--the "thing to do" in the community, special career opportunities or influences, counselee's identification with the community and desire to stay there and accept its values.

5. Pressure Groups--Has the counselee (or his parents) been exposed to any particular influence that leads him to value one occupation over another? Is this influence compatible with the counselee's abilities, values, and need?

6. Role Perception--Does the counselee want to be a leader, a follower, an isolate, or just a "good Joe"? Is the counselee's perception of himself and his role in accord with the way others perceive him? (8, p. 50)

There is a need to use the information about students that is often gathered and then filed. Many schools have sufficient information available on student records that if it were properly assimilated and evaluated it would have considerable effect on establishing school policy.

Recommendations for more effective use of information may be listed as follows:

1. Provide, in writing, education objectives which encompass the broad scope of each dimension of an inter-disciplinary approach.
2. Provide for enlightened administrative leadership necessary to carry out the major objectives of the educational program.
3. Provide a curriculum which includes economic, social, and psychological dimensions of individual growth and development, based upon empirical data which are available or which can be developed.
4. Provide for integration of facts from each area on an individual basis using group techniques and/or individual counseling.
5. Provide educational experiences which are based upon the needs of individuals, recognizing differences in values, attitudes, goals, and abilities.
6. Seek to improve instruction, counseling, and administration by employment of consultants from business, industry, and education.
7. Employ only the most effective means for learning, integrating information, and administering the educational program enhanced by flexibility and an adequate evaluative system.
8. Provide teacher, counselor, and administrator training institutions with measures of the effectiveness of the personnel they train as a means of upgrading these programs.

Guidance workers should take the initiative in the dissemination of local data pertinent to the formulation of school policy. Where possible, this should be done by direct contact with the school administration with a willingness to assist in informing the entire school staff as to the importance of the implications derived from the local findings.

Guidance department personnel have the interest, training and commitment to analyze the components of vocational decision-making. The education and preparation needed for an individual's entry and success in an appropriate occupation (one from which the individual can achieve a personal sense of value and achievement), requires a synthesis of all the factors confronting the individual as he engages in the process of exploring, selection, preparation and entry into a vocation.

Of primary importance in the policy-making decisions of boards of education and administrators that affect vocational decision-making or career choice of students is to recognize that economic, sociological and psychological problems are interrelated. A categorical solution or policy regarding any one of these may, in fact, frustrate the efforts of those charged with carrying out policy and also delay potentially favorable outcomes.

In the final analysis, effective implementation of any program must necessarily depend upon the capabilities of the school administrator. Implementation of an inter-disciplinary approach is even more dependent upon effective administration. Farwell and Peters present this idea in a very meaningful way:

> The school administrator is a key figure in programming for guidance, for it is he who employs the staff and delegates to them their responsibilities. The school administrator who does not

> understand, believe in, and support an organized guidance program can insure that a guidance framework for action never comes into being. (5, p. 8)

If our educational program is to meet the needs of society, every aspect of our culture must be examined. Further, it is vital that broad educational goals and objectives for education be based on data obtained from and through the community which it serves. Since education and vocational decision-making are one and the same process, integration of inter-disciplinary information for vocational decision-making into the educational program is paramount if stated objectives are to be attained. Structure and procedures for reaching goals and objectives must necessarily be designed to utilize economic, social, and psychological information effectively--a responsibility which must be shared by all school personnel.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Although the public school is relatively new compared with long-established institutions such as the state, church, and family, it has developed into a powerful instrument for influencing human behavior. In light of the rapid changes individuals must cope with in our modern American society, the school, because of its significant influence on youth and its established position as a social institution, must be in touch with social realities and the entire scope of changing social conditions.

The behavioral sciences now present convincing evidence that culture is a human creation, not a superhuman system beyond man's control. This new understanding of human potential suggests that human beings may shape culture to their needs rather than being passively conditioned by existing social and economic factors. But this new interpretation of culture often conflicts with static concepts and mechanistic ways of thinking about man and his environment. To maintain some semblance of balance with physical science, the behavioral and social sciences call for a critical examination of every aspect of contemporary cultural patterns. The psychological impact of this process of examination will no doubt create conflict for many individuals as they try to preserve traditional beliefs that have become archaic.

The capacity of educators to cope with change and to understand the relevance of economic patterns and social structures within their

communities is crucial in attempting to alter education to meet today's needs. Awareness of social and economic forces in the community and knowledge of the relationship of socioeconomic factors to individual and group behavior will assist in providing meaningful educational opportunities for all students. Human personality must be viewed, not as a unit in isolation, but as part of a larger structure including outside forces as well as inner resources. The psychological well-being of the individual must be seen in light of a constellation of cultural factors, including the economic and social environment, that influence a person's behavior and way of living.

The extent to which new knowledge in economics, sociology, and psychology will serve the needs of children and youth depends to a large degree on educators' openness to innovation and change. For the schools, in their growing impact within the total societal structure, must apply such knowledge if they hope to develop and achieve meaningful educational goals.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Borow, Henry (ed.). Man in a World at Work. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964.

2. "Careers Without College: Plenty of Good Ones." Reprinted from U. S. News and World Report, Nov. 29, 1965.

3. Conant, James B. Slums and Suburbs. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961.

4. Davis, Allinson. "The Future of Children from Low Socio-Economic Groups," New Dimensions for Educational Progress." Bloomington: Phi Delta Kappa, Inc., 1962.

5. Farwell, Gail F. and Herman J. Peters. Guidance Readings for Counselors. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1960.

6. Hatch, Raymond N. and Buford Stefflr. Administration of Guidance Services. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958.

7. Horrocks, John E. The Psychology of Adolescence Behavior and Development. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company (2nd edition), 1962.

8. Lipsett, Lawrence. Vocational Guidance and Career Development. Edited by Herman J. Peters and J. C. Hansen. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.

9. National-Committee for Children and Youth, Washington, D. C. Social Dynamics: The Report of the Conference on Unemployed Out-of School Youth in Urban Areas, May 24-26, 1961.

10. Tiedeman, D. V. and F. L. Field. "Guidance: The Science of Purposeful Action Applied Through Education," Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 32, No. 4, Fall, 1962. Cambridge: President and Fellows of Harvard College, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1962)

11. U. S. Department of Labor. The Economic Setting for Vocational Guidance, Occupational Outlook Quarterly, Sept., 1963. (Vol. 7, No. 3)

12. U. S. Department of Labor. Young Workers: Their Special Training Needs, Bulletin #3, May, 1963.

13. U. S. Department of Labor. A Look at Tomorrow's Jobs, Occupational Outlook Report Series, 1966.

THE COORDINATION OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING AT THE FEDERAL, STATE, AND LOCAL LEVELS

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for

Guidance 400

by

Leo S. Scott, Co-Chairman
Walter Adams, Co-Chairman
John Cornette
Lyle Evenson
Walter Flannery
Dennis Hanley
David Looney
Gerald Ross
Bill Rosser
Gerald Quinn

Summer 1966

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
II.	BASIC FACTS	2
	Coordination at the Federal Level	2
	Introduction	2
	Office of Education	2
	Purpose of the Office of Education	3
	Programs Relating to Vocational Guidance	5
	The State Level	7
	Coordinating Vocational Guidance at the State Level	11
	Present Cooperation at the State Level	12
	The Local Level	13
III.	IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	17
	Federal Level	17
	Recommendations (Federal Level)	18
	State Implications	19
	State Recommendations	19
	Local Implications	21
	Local Recommendations	22
IV.	CONCLUSION	24
V.	BIBLIOGRAPHY	25

I. INTRODUCTION

Education today is in a constant state of change. Federal, state and local agencies are more involved than ever before. The trend toward more involvement seems certain. Most educators agree with this involvement, but it has created proportionate problems. One of the most serious of these has been in the coordination of all levels--Federal, state, and local. Effective initiation of any program demands an informed populace.

All levels face a real challenge in coordination efforts. For the sake of example, examine the challenge that faces the local administrator. He must keep himself abreast of the newly-born and ever-changing Federal and state programs and how they offset programs at the local level. At the same time, he must effectively discriminate to his staff, and to other involved personnel, the pertinent information. A breakdown in communication on either side could very easily cause additional problems.

Some quite agitating questions arise immediately in viewing programs. Why do some schools seem to get the lion's share of benefits from new Federal and state programs? Why do those that most need assistance too often appear to be overlooked? Why are some communities truly satisfied with the numerous new programs while others find little good to say about them?

Perhaps a partial answer to all of these questions lies in the area of coordination--keeping the people informed.

An age-old problem is the tendency of one level to blame another, either above or below, as the cause of the problem. The purpose of this paper, then, is to examine the basis for cooperative action and ways of improving the coordination of Federal, state, and local programs of vocational guidance.

II. BASIC FACTS

Coordination at the Federal Level

Introduction. There is overwhelming evidence of a new commitment on the part of the Federal Government to education, started during the late 1950's, and continuing through the administration of President Kennedy and now during the Johnson administration. Emphasis on education began with measures taken by the Federal Government to provide for the national defense and now have been channeled into concern for the national welfare. Education as a means of providing for the national welfare has come to occupy a central place in our political, economic and social efforts for national improvement. The occurrence and continuation of this present trend is the result of several forces. The main force is the course established by previous Congresses which have determined the extent of Federal participation in education and, next, the pragmatic alteration of the course influenced by either foreign or domestic crises.

Office of Education. The governmental unit responsible for the conduct of educational matters is the United States Office of Education, a section operating under the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The Office of Education has undergone dramatic changes in the

past several years. Increased responsibility in the preparation of legislation and the administration of various educational acts have been the main contributors to this change. As evidence of this, Tiedt states, "the budget allocated for this office has already increased so that it is bigger than that for the Departments of Commerce, Interior, Justice or Labor." (7, p. 200) In addition, it is estimated that,

> "The cost of education will rise until the educational budget rivals that of the Defense Department. In 1965, educational expenditures were estimated at $30 billion. President Johnson's budget for the fiscal year 1965-1966 called for a 75 percent increase in spending through the Office of Education. (7, p. 199)

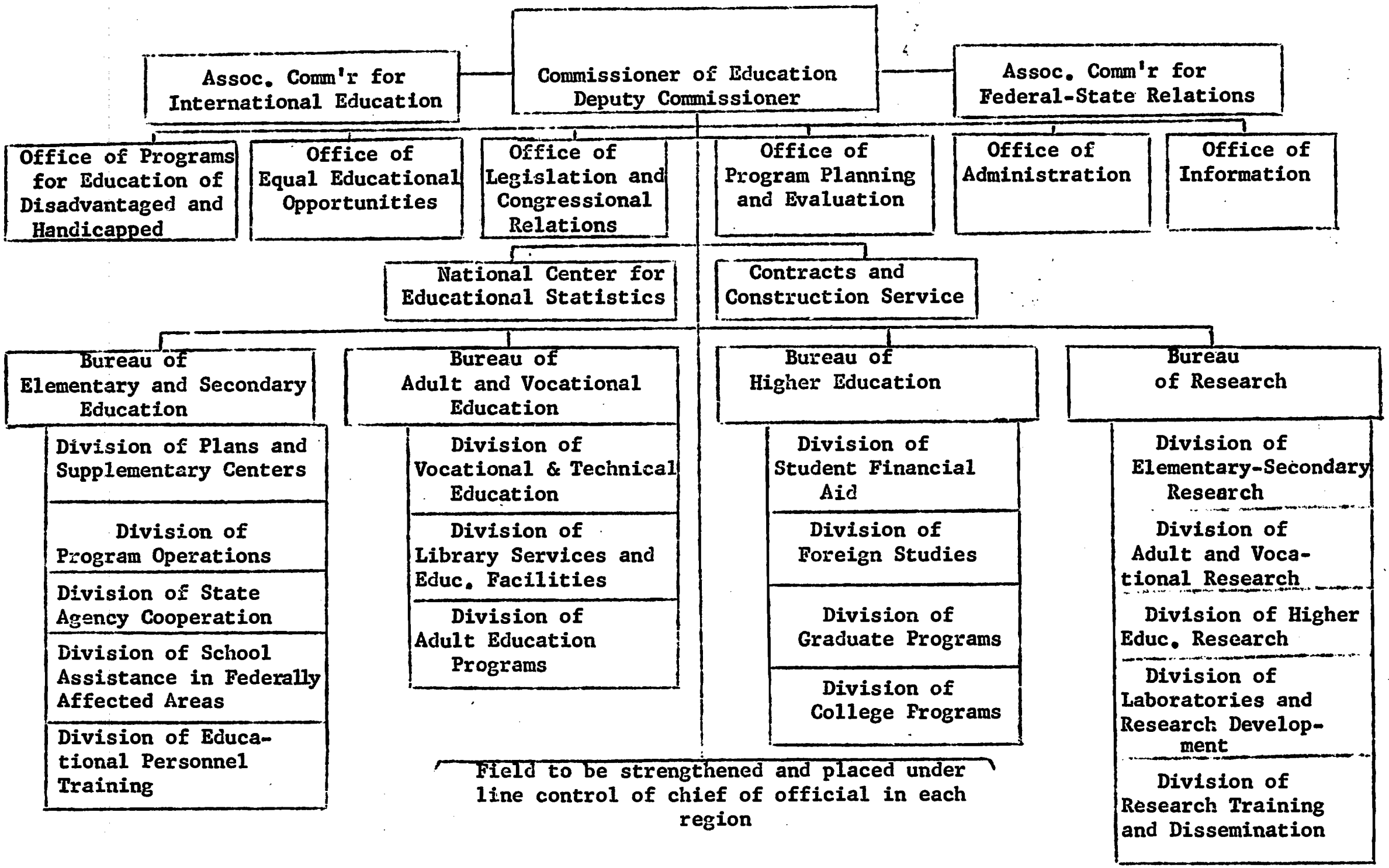
The result of Federal participation in education has resulted in the concentration of increased authority and responsibility in the Office of Education. This unit, therefore, serves as the Federal agency for coordinating governmental programs in education. The 1965 organizational structure of the Office of Education is shown in Chart I. (7, p. 201)

Purpose of the Office of Education. The purpose of the Office of Education can be described in two ways. The first is in terms of general statements of purpose and the second in terms of specific responsibilities delegated to the Office.

The basic purposes that the Office of Education serves are as follows: (1) The Office of Education is responsible for keeping the President and Congress informed concerning the status of education in the United States, (2) it is responsible for the implementation and administration of legislative acts and (3) it is to provide leadership and consultant services for education in the United States.

The changing role of the Office is evident in the new and specific

1965 ORGANIZATION OF U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION (CHART I)



From: U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Legislative Notes, July 19,1965.

responsibilities added by nine legislative acts passed during 1965. (9, pp. 63-128) These acts covered categorical aid to elementary and secondary education, higher education, manpower, aid to deaf, student loans, health professions, school disaster aid, etc. Tiedt sees the importance of increasing responsibility as follows:

> As future rapid changes take place in education, the significance of the Office's pivotal position will be enhanced. The Office of Education and its staff will assume roles of leadership in crucial decisions. Research and development in education will be greatly expanded under the auspices of this office. Grants and fellowships will encourage a tremendous increase in the studies of education at all levels. The Office of Education will serve as a center for all the dissemination of this acquired knowledge. (7, p. 202)

The present complexity of the Office of Education can be seen in Chart I showing the 1965 organization. The staff organization is composed of the following: The Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner and two Associate Commissioners, six offices, two service sections, four bureaus, seventeen divisions and several regional field centers. The organization is complex; and, when the additional factors of rapid staff growth and increased responsibility for implementing educational acts is taken into consideration, it is easy to imagine the internal as well as external coordination problems.

Programs Relating to Vocational Guidance. Federal legislation relating to vocational guidance is contained specifically in the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (Voc. Ed.). The National Defense Education Act of 1958 (revised) (NDEA) provides in Title V-A for guidance, counseling and testing; and guidance programs are allowable under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. (ESEA) These

three acts represent the major areas of support for guidance services as they relate directly or indirectly to vocational guidance. There is no central coordination of these guidance programs because the three acts mentioned are administered by three different divisions within two separate bureaus of the Office of Education. NDEA, Title V-A, is administered by the Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers and ESEA, Title I, by the Division of Program Operations both of which come under the jurisdiction of the Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education. (See Chart I.) The Voc. Ed. Act (1963) is administered by the Division of Vocational and Technical Education of the Bureau of Adult and Vocational Education. (See Chart I.)

The intent of each of these acts is somewhat different and varied. NDEA (V-A) supports general guidance and testing, while the Voc. Ed. Act places particular stress on counseling for vocational educational programs. ESEA (I) allows for inclusion of guidance services for youth in school but focuses particularly on poverty areas. The primary concern in relation to coordination is related to the process of clarifying the limitations of the provisions of these acts to each of the levels of administration involved. In brief, the sequence is this: (1) The Office of Education states the legislation in terms of Rules and Regulations for states, (2) states are allowed certain latitude for developing state plans for use of funds and then write provisions and criteria that set the limits for development of local programs, and (3) the local personnel can develop programs that qualify for funding providing they adhere to state regulations. Maximum utilization of funds for guidance program development depends upon effective coordination at each of these levels.

The following excerpts from the Office of Education, Rules and Regulations on Vocational Education, will serve to indicate the policy governing the development of state and local guidance programs that desire to qualify for Federal funds.

> Section 104.13 Vocational guidance and counseling services
> (a) The State plan shall provide for such vocational guidance and counseling personnel and services as are required by the program of instruction . . . and describe such provisions on both the State and local levels with information on the types of expenditures to be included and the standards and requirements of vocational guidance and counseling services which are designed to (1) identify and encourage the enrollment of individuals needing vocational education, (2) provide the individuals with information necessary for realistic vocational planning, (3) assist them while pursuing the plan, (4) aid them in vocational placement, and (5) conduct follow-up procedures to determine the effectiveness of the vocational instruction and guidance and counseling program. (8, pp. 1-5)

This reference is typical of the Federal regulations governing state and local programs. Other regulations on vocational education describe duties of state staff (104.18), cooperative arrangements to be made with state employment services (104.7), and cooperative arrangements with other agencies (104.8).

In light of the above relationships that exist among the various organizations that intend to qualify and operate programs with Federal assistance, it becomes expedient that channels for effective communication be established and consultant assistance be offered to achieve maximum benefit from administration policy making and program development.

The State Level

The state level guidance service is essentially that of a consulting agency. This means that the state does not attempt to usurp

the authority of the local school; but rather it is the purpose of the state office to assist the superintendent, the counselor, and other interested personnel in developing a strong, well-coordinated guidance program consistent with policies established by local and/or state boards of education.

It should be recognized that until recently most state level agencies had so little money to encourage vocational guidance and so little personnel to offer consultant services that there was comparatively little need to establish formal channels to coordinate the state efforts. Now, with the larger staffs and moneys to influence school guidance programs, the need to cooperate should be apparent.

The State Department disseminates pertinent information that will be of value to the school district; it also can be of great value in communicating trends and developments of the vocational guidance nature. The State Department of Education should be available to advise or give information to the school districts and other interested agencies upon request.

It is recognized that in the hierarchy of administration there must be an administrative agency at the state level. In many cases, it is the duty of the state agencies to act as an intermediary between the local districts and the Federal Government. In this capacity, the State Department serves as a clearing house for information that is beneficial for local use. Information relative to the recently-passed Federal programs and how they may be utilized locally is to be disseminated by the state agencies.

Administrative duties at the state level may include the following as indicated by the Missouri Plan for Vocational Guidance and Counseling.

a. Develop and maintain a supervisory staff necessary for providing adequate supervisory, consultative, evaluative and leadership services, and other areas of vocational education and related areas of education.

b. Receive, develop, compile, and report occupational information pertinent to current and projected manpower needs and job opportunities.

c. Serve as coordinating agency for providing to the State Employment Service such information as is determined necessary to the occupational guidance and placement of persons completing programs or courses of vocational education.

d. Administer the vocational guidance certification procedures to correlate with the Handbook for Classification and Accreditation.

e. Provide assistance to vocational guidance personnel and other vocational education personnel through research activities and studies directed toward increasing the effectiveness of programs of vocational education.

f. Provide assistance in planning, evaluating and carrying out in-service education programs for teacher, counselor, supervisors, and administrators.

g. Develop and maintain such statistics, records, and reports as are necessary to properly define and account for resources and services provided under this section of the State Plan.

h. Perform such additional functions as are necessary in the development and operation of an effective program of guidance services. (6, p. 17)

The various state departments of education determine the duties of the counseling personnel in their respective states. The Missouri Plan for Vocational Education states:

> The State Board of Education may employ staff members having titles, and duties as are indicated below:
>
> a. Director--Duties--The director shall have an over-all responsibility for the development and continuance of activities that involve the initiation, improvement, and expansion of vocational guidance services in the local schools . . .

b. Assistant Director--The assistant director shall be responsible for assisting the director in accomplishing the functions of the Vocational Guidance Service Section . . . Supervisors shall have primary responsibilities which include assistance to local schools in the establishment, expansion, or improvement of programs of guidance and counseling. (6, p. 8)

The State of Illinois lists the state supervisors' duties as follows:

> They shall develop, secure, and distribute occupational information; provide consultative services concerning the vocational aspect of guidance; and give leadership to the promotion and supervision of better vocational guidance and counseling services at the local level. (5)

The need for coordination is noted when it is further stated that, "The state staff shall utilize the resources of the State Employment Service provided for in Section 1.41." (5)

A study of these and other state plans indicate that they are all basically similar in defining the duties of those in the state vocational and counseling offices. Their primary duties are to coordinate and aid the local school districts in their efforts to develop and maintain an adequate counseling program. As is noted above, there is a need to coordinate with other agencies when it is mentioned that there must be coordination with the state employment offices.

Horvatich indicates that administrators may enhance their programs when several acts are studied in an effort to determine the areas of benefits that may be combined with other acts. He cites Osborne as stating:(3, p. 56)

> Several government agencies may be interested in a project for different reasons. Consider a project which proposes the use of teaching machines to help youth who can't get along in the normal classroom environment. The condition affects the ability of such youth to succeed in vocational training programs;

> contributes to juvenile delinquency, and results in draft rejection. Hence government agencies concerned with these matters should be interested in aiding a project which will improve the situation. (4, p. 56)

Suffice it to say that a study of all possible interested agencies would be beneficial.

Coordinating Vocational Guidance at the State Level. If the schools are to be consistent in their local guidance programs, the requirements and guidelines established by the various agencies at the state level must be coordinated.

Some agencies or divisions of the Department of Education are:

The Vocational Education Department - In some states, this is a separate department from the Education Department. In states with separate departments for Vocational Education, this Department tends to view vocational guidance as guidance for vocational students.

The Guidance and Testing Division - This division provides moneys for guidance services for adults in basic education programs.

State Scholarship Commission - This division tests students for "academic potential" as low as the eighth grade.

The Curriculum Division - This section provides consultative services to schools in the guidance areas.

The Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965 Division - This division supports programs for educationally-deprived students.

Vocational Rehabilitation Division - This provides counseling services for handicapped persons over sixteen years of age.

Employment Security Division - This group provides youth counseling services and pre-employment testing and counseling.

The Colleges and Universities - State Colleges provide consultant services to the local schools and the various state agencies.

Since there are various systems of structure in various state programs, there is a need for greater coordination among the interested agencies.

Present Cooperation at the State Level. As the various agencies and divisions at the state level have extended their concerns into the vocational guidance areas, efforts have been made to coordinate programs. The ESEA offices consult with the State Guidance Office concerning new proposals. The vocational guidance programs of the Vocational Education Section and the Guidance Division usually have a working agreement for financing and supervising their programs. The State Employment Security Division and the Guidance Division usually have worked out an agreement for the use of the GATB in the schools. Many other state agencies have cooperated on particular projects, and state personnel often exchange views informally.

The state agencies are developing new roles. If the different divisions are to be more effective in stimulating vocational guidance in the state, inconsistencies in their programs must be discussed and reconciled whenever possible. Administrative channels are now being established in most state education departments to facilitate the coordination of similar programs. The writers feel that it is most urgent that the guidance programs receive high priority for coordination.

The Local Level

> So complex is the process of promoting the development of human beings that every school, even the best, is in constant need of adjustment and improvement. A school should be a vibrant, changing place. For the flexible, creative administrator, there are ample opportunities--indeed challenges--to change. In addition to the ever present need for better use of existing knowledge, facilities, and methods, there is a steady procession of new books, new programs, new mechanical devices, new suggestions for division of responsibilities among teachers and new knowledge about learning. (1, p. 25)

The quotation above sets forth the challenge to the local level administrator. He is charged with the responsibility of meeting the needs of the students under his direction. One of the tasks which could easily be read into the above quote would be the administrator's role in the coordination of vocational guidance and counseling among the various Federal, state and local programs. (The administrator, as used in this portion of the paper, will refer to those persons who play an active part in policy or decision-making. The following personnel could conceivably be considered administrators as used in this context: superintendents; principals; administrative assistants; directors of curriculum, guidance, or pupil personnel; and boards of education.)

In an attempt to assess the administrator's role as it concerns coordination, we have listed below several broad responsibilities which we feel should fall under his domain. The administrator should:

1. Keep constantly abreast of Federal, state or community programs which affect his local situation.

2. Keep himself informed of local educational needs.

3. Act as the agency for distributing pertinent information to staff members who might be involved.

4. Utilize his staff, in every way possible, to keep the students and parents informed.

5. Keep the educational picture before the public. Newspapers, radio, TV, Rotary Club, Lions Club, and others of this nature offer excellent outlets for information. These organizations can also act as a sounding board for the administrator.

6. Have a planned program for coordination and not let it happen in a haphazard manner. Included in this program should also be procedures for evaluation.

The reader should not get the idea that the above roles constitute the sum total of the local administrator's responsibilities. They represent only those functions dealing with coordination.

In working with students and adults in the community, it is essential for the guidance personnel to be well informed regarding the referral agencies and services which may be suitable to the various individuals and situations.

A community-wide survey of such agencies and services may be the first step toward gathering the necessary information. This surveying procedure may open avenues of communication for the future cooperation and coordination of educational programs and the programs of these agencies and services.

In communities which are large enough to support separate guidance staff members, a survey would probably show the following referral facilities:

The United States Employment Service and its affiliated Employment Security Department; The Veterans Administration's Vocational

Rehabilitation and Educational Service; State Departments of Vocational Rehabilitation; Public Welfare Departments; and numerous local voluntary service agencies which are often associated with community clubs and fraternal organizations.

Because the school counselor is primarily concerned with the school-age student working within the educational structure, it would seem more appropriate for the guidance staff to accept responsibility for establishing avenues of voluntary cooperation and coordination of the educational programs offered by the various agencies. With this factor of coordination in mind, the following specific services are designated:

The United States Employment Service has a dual function of (1) job placement and (2) screening and selection of individuals for training or retraining programs. Through the educational features of the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Job Corps, they are able to work with school dropouts and recent school graduates. For the students in school, the agency's testing program offers a valuable service to the individual youth and the counselor. In addition, the agency's counselors provide job-oriented information service in preparation for future job placement.

Another recent innovation in the U. S. E. S. is the employment of school counselors during summer recess periods. While relieving their shortage of counselors, they are also providing in-service training in job placement and labor information which is valuable to the school personnel in their regular work.

In larger metropolitan centers, the U. S. E. S. maintains an Apprenticeship Information Center to collect data on training opportunities as well as to distribute the information to schools and interested individuals.

The Veterans Administration offers Vocational Rehabilitation and Education (VR & E) services to veterans and their families and may be used by counselors as a referral agency. However, there are also direct financial services available through this agency for war orphans. Currently, the new "cold war" veteran benefits may again bring some of these people back to the school system.

The Welfare Department of the state offers numerous services in the areas of vocational counseling, training programs, and correctional equipment as well as financial assistance to handicapped youths and adults. Sharing of information by the school and this agency can greatly facilitate the services to these people.

The Public Welfare Department offers many services to particular groups of people who are in need of various types of assistance. The children of such families are usually also eligible for special considerations. Cooperation and the exchange of information between the guidance department and this agency may make it possible for specific youth to obtain a more appropriate education. This agency, in cooperation with the Economic Opportunity Program, provides Work-Experience programs to enable welfare children to secure training in more specialized areas under public school jurisdiction.

In addition to the governmental-related agencies listed, the counselor should be cognizant of the local private industrial firms that

may offer excellent personnel services which can be utilized by the school. Industry and the school may find it mutually advantageous to know the role that each can serve if only the avenues of communication are established and kept open. New programs recently introduced are those of Bell Telephone and the Caterpillar Company who have both instituted workshop training programs for school counselors. Such programs offer promise of significant educational value for schools as well as affording the companies an opportunity to present reliable information on their personnel needs and policies.

Regarding the recent and significant Federal laws dealing with education, only the National Defense Education Act spells out and concentrates on the specific area of guidance services. However, the recognition of the essential nature of these services can be noted throughout all the various Federal education laws. Either by specific requirement or by implication, vocational guidance is to be an integral part of all programs. Recommendations made to the administrator by the people in pupil personnel service areas must therefore take into consideration the opportunities in the community and the educational possibilities of the recent legislation.

III. IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Federal Level

The new role of the Federal Government in education has created the need for more effective coordination by the Office of Education with the various state, local and other governmental agencies concerned with vocational guidance and education. The quality and effectiveness

of the actual guidance and counseling offered as part of local vocational education programs will depend on how well each of the agencies involved can cooperatively work out the administrative details. More effective coordination by the Office of Education is expedient not only for the development of state and local vocational guidance programs but also for the purpose of providing consultants at the Federal level with experience and understandings that will guide future legislative and policy development.

Recommendations (Federal Level)

1. It is recommended that the Office of Education continue in its efforts at reorganization and the establishment of more internal coordination of staff, responsibility and services.

2. Continued efforts for cooperative action should be made by both the Office of Education and other governmental agencies concerned with the improvement of vocational guidance.

3. The present organizational structure of the Office of Education places responsibility for the administration of guidance programs in several different divisions. It seems desirable that they be coordinated by a separate unit so that efforts can be directed at helping states and local schools develop balanced longitudinal guidance programs and separate the various programs.

4. Efforts by the Office of Education should be directed more fully toward providing leadership to state guidance programs and universities that goes beyond the interpretation of policy and deals with the development of goals and objectives for guidance, provides

imaginative guidelines for program development and providing or contracting for in-service education for Federal and state staff on matters of leadership.

5. A recommendation that is basic to all others involves the responsibility for providing leadership that has a conceptualization of education that is more than good economics, sensible politics or sound defense. There is a need to concentrate on the ends of education as well as to invest in developing the means. Why are we doing all of this?

State Implications

The profundity of Federal legislation-created programs necessitates well-oriented state programs to provide leadership to local agencies in setting the direction and scope of local programs in order that ultimate objectives can be reached.

State Recommendations

1. At the state level, anyone concerned with youth counseling should coordinate with other sections of the Department of Education for the purpose of alleviating differences and for preventing overlap of services. An example follows: Adult Education Department, Testing Section, ESEA Office, and Curriculum Department.

2. It is recommended that a directory be prepared by the State Department of Education listing agencies available at the state level that have services available to counselors. Such a directory would be made available to each school.

3. The County Superintendent of Schools or a comparable agency should be given the task of preparing a directory of appropriate referral agencies utilized by the guidance departments.

4. State Departments of Education should investigate private vocational schools with the intent of recommending the criteria for licensing.

5. County school superintendents or other personnel should collect and classify information on county or district levels concerning all agencies relative to counseling and guidance. This information:

a. can be made into a county or school district directory.

b. can be sent in to the state department and be made into a state-wide directory -- to be distributed to proper personnel for actual use.

6. The State Superintendent of Education should convene a coordinating council of all state level agencies included in vocational guidance services.

7. The State Guidance Division should sponsor clinics for school administrators, vocational educators, and counselors to better acquaint them with present problems that exist because of the inadequate vocational maturity of large segments of today's youth.

8. State Departments of Education should take steps to upgrade present counselors' knowledge and techniques for helping students make vocational decisions.

9. State Departments should require that the pupil-counselor ratio be no more than 300 to 1 so that counselors can spend additional time helping students in the decision-making process.

10. State Departments and the colleges training counselors should make sincere efforts toward producing counselors that are aware of the theories and techniques of vocational counseling.

11. State guidance personnel should make extensive efforts to develop better understanding of the counseling relationship in the vocational guidance program so that state officials who write the state plans of the various state offices do not think of counselors as recruiters.

12. The State Vocational Education Divisions should enter into discussions with the state universities and colleges to persuade college officials to accept vocational as well as academic courses for meeting college entrance requirements.

13. The State Vocational Education Division should make college administrators aware of the school's responsibility to provide its students with vocational guidance and to follow up its dropouts as well as its graduates.

14. The State Education Department should provide additional funds to local guidance programs so that better placement and follow-up services can be provided.

15. The state should provide funds for vocational guidance and actual work experiences at the grade school level.

Local Implications

The ever-growing number of funded programs is making it increasingly possible for local agencies to provide more and better vocational guidance services to young people. In one urban center there were,

during the school year of 1965-66, fourteen different work training or guidance programs administered by eight different administrative bodies. The implication for the need to coordinate these programs is obvious. This new-found wealth carries the responsibility of developing programs that achieve all-encompassing objectives of providing improved vocational guidance assistance to youth.

Local Recommendations

1. There should be one person in each school district who is directly responsible to the Superintendent of Schools, or his delegated representative, for the coordination and supervision of the district-wide program of counseling and guidance. This person should be a certified counselor and should have administrative responsibility in the areas of:

a. Selection of guidance personnel;

b. Proposing and administering the guidance budget;

c. Formulating district-wide policy with regard to guidance and counseling;

d. In-service training as to their role in the guidance program for counselors and teachers and other school personnel; and

e. Evaluation of the guidance program.

2. Local administration should involve themselves in diagnosing the special needs of the students in their community and developing programs to be subsidized by the Federal Government where there is an indication that Federal moneys would be an appropriate source.

3. A special administrator should be contracted in every school system with the primary responsibility of keeping abreast of the new

programs on the Federal and state level and to be involved in all special programs developed at the local level.

4. The local administration should endeavor to enlist the aid of all social agencies to support the various programs that may evolve within the community.

5. The local administration should evolve a clear set of objectives in line with the philosophy of the school, whereby the program may be evaluated.

6. Clear-cut avenues of communication should be established among all people and programs at the local level. A concerted effort should be made to assure that these lines are appropriately used both vertically and horizontally.

7. The local administration should devise and distribute appropriate publicity to keep the public informed of the development of the various programs in order to enhance the chances of success.

8. There should be closer cooperation with the United States Employment Service and encouragement of job placement for younger workers seeking both short-term and long-term employment.

9. Possibilities offered by the summer employment of school counselors by the U. S. E. S. should be explored, and wider participation in industry-organized workshops should be encouraged.

10. Cooperation of school counselors and vocational rehabilitation counselors in exchanging information, especially during the early part of the handicapped students' final year in school, should be encouraged. This procedure may afford a better opportunity to provide satisfactory placement.

14. Special attention should be focused upon children who are currently receiving welfare assistance, so they may have a better opportunity to break out of the traditional cycle.

IV. CONCLUSION

It has been demonstrated that there is a definite need for improved coordination of guidance services at the Federal, state, and local levels. There have been suggestions as to ways and means of improving coordinating relationships among the involved agencies. The remaining factor required to engender action is a human one.

Necessary to any successful program is its linkage with a sincerely dedicated individual or group of individuals who possess the professional background and commitment to youth, the motivation to push the program forward, and the ability to attract respect for and cooperation with the primary effort, in this case, coordination of vocational guidance services.

V. BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. The Educational Policies Commission. Education and the Disadvantaged American. Washington, D. C.: The Commission, 1962.

2. Gellman, William. "Government and Community Settings for Vocational Guidance," Man in a World at Work, Henry Borow, editor. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964.

3. Horvatich, Walter, Methods and Materials in Work Experience Education (a study). Calumet City, Illinois, 1965.

4. Ibid., citing Osborne, Buckman,"A Schoolman's Guide to Federal Aid," School Management, June, 1965, p. 95.

5. Illinois Guide for Vocational Services, 3.0 Ancillary Services and Activities. Department of Education, Springfield, Illinois. No page number.

6. Missouri State Plan for Vocational Education. State Department of Education, H. Wheeler, Superintendent. Jefferson City, Mo., 1964.

7. Tiedt, Sidney W. The Role of the Federal Government in Education. New York: Oxford University Press, 1966.

8. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Part 104-Administration of Vocational Education: Federal Allotments to States, Rules and Regulations. Washington, D. C.: Office of Education (Reprinted from Federal Register, August 28, 1964).

9. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. 1965: Year of Legislative Achievements. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1966.

THE GUIDANCE FUNCTION IN ADMINISTRATIVE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS FOR THE VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL PROGRAM

A Report

Submitted in

Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for Guidance 400

Group 3

Carmon Bixler - Co-Chairman
Walter Horvatich - Co-Chairman
Charles Wright - Secretary

Jim Athen
Dick Banning
Frank Downhour
Russell Frid
Richard Galusha
Jim Nickell
Reynold Erickson

August 1966

INTRODUCTION

The administrative staff in an educational system is charged with the responsibility of providing for or conducting activities which facilitate the development of efficient educational programs that will meet the needs of all students. It is generally recognized that, in order for the administrative personnel to discharge this responsibility, the total staff must make contributions by fulfilling their role and function responsibilities.

The role and function of each professional staff member can be expressed to the administration and may be recognized as those efforts or activities which assist students to learn and includes providing information, observations, and opinions based on contact with students so that they may be incorporated into administrative decisions.

School administrators have a key role in the establishment of these guidance and counseling functions which tend to help each student make appropriate vocational decisions. It then becomes obvious that administrators must look to guidance and counseling personnel for help in developing functions for the implimentation of these decisions. The purpose of this paper was to offer suggestions for guidance and counseling personnel to use in assisting administrators

to determine functions which improve conditions for students' vocational decision-making.

It will not be within the province of this paper to develop guidelines for a total vocational guidance program, not to list all of the functions of either guidance personnel or administrators. Rather, attention will be focused on the inter-relationships of guidance personnel and vocational-technical program administrators and how guidance services may be of help to the administrator in developing, administering and evaluating the total vocational program, whether at the secondary or post-high school level.

PROBLEM

There is a need for more awareness on the part of guidance service personnel and administrative personnel, as to ways in which guidance services may contribute to the administration functions involved in providing an educational program to meet the needs of all students. This need for awareness has been prompted by the growing complexity of decisions concerning use of federal and state funds, development of new or different programs, and the shifting emphasis of the educational programs. This need becomes more apparent as one relates the decisions administrative personnel must make to the types of information and insights concerning vocational plans, aspirations, interests, and abilities of students' guidance service personnel can contribute.

BASIC FACTS

The administration of any educational program is charged with the responsibility for planning, executing, appraising and interpreting of all aspects of the educational process. (5, p. 18) The functions of education are commonly referred to as administrative, instructional and personnel.

The Instructional Function

The educational processes that are designed primarily to assist students gain a mastery of subject matter and skills constitute that phase of education described as the instructional function.

The Administrative Function

The planning, executing, appraising, and interpreting of the aspects of the educational process are the phases for which the administrator is held accountable and are described as the administrative function.

The Personnel Function

The educational process that is planned specifically for each individual student to assist him to become more self-directive and socially integrated is described as the personnel function. (5, p. 8)

Guidance service personnel generally have training including, but not limited to, the areas of organizing

guidance services, occupational information, counseling techniques, tests and measurements, research and evaluation, and understanding the dynamics of human behavior. Additional or related areas may include administration, psychology, curriculum development, sociology or economics. Such preparatory course work is all at the graduate level. Guidance services personnel also are usually required to have work experience in addition to teaching experience.

FUNCTIONS OF GUIDANCE RELATED TO ADMINISTRATIVE DECISION-MAKING

Selection

Selection is, at any point in the educational process, an administrative function. It is an administrative plan and decision when students are told that they cannot get into this or that course or curriculum unless certain requirements are fulfilled. The counselor may acquaint the individual with all the facts about the selective process and about its requirements. (9, p. 99)

The counselor may be called upon by the administration to participate in developing criteria in the selection process. The counselor should be used as a resource person in the process of interpreting information on individual students.

Information

The counselor should be prepared to provide the administrator with up-to-date information about the occupational environment of the community. He should have current information about the enrollment in all courses of the vocational-technical program, the number of students interested in additional courses and what these courses are, and the number of students interested in beginning their training in the vocational-technical program. He should have statistical data available on the effectiveness of courses, the number of dropouts, and the total number of students graduating each year. He should maintain follow-up studies of the graduates and dropouts to see where they are getting their jobs, what types of industries are hiring them, and the salary that can be expected in entry into these jobs.

Implication

The more adequate and up-to-date information about the occupational environment of the community provides the administrator with factual material to assist him in his decision-making process in relationship to the total vocational-technical program.

Evaluation

There is a continuing and increasing felt need among educators, encouraged by much recent legislation, to evaluate all educational programs. Such evaluation usually

involves some assessment of the effects of educational programs on individual students, in terms of specific achieved objectives. It is the responsibility of the administrator to plan, initiate and conduct, or authorize other members of the staff to do so, any overall evaluative program.

Professional guidance service personnel have usually received training in individual assessment and research methods, including evaluative techniques. Such advanced training should be of considerable assistance to the administrator or to any person assigned responsibility for evaluation of the total program, specific course areas, or the effectiveness of the program for any individual student. The guidance staff should be resources in planning evaluative studies and interpreting the results. Responsibility for evaluation should remain, however, with administrative staff or specifically assigned personnel.

Implications

The guidance staff should be a resource for the program administrator in planning specific techniques which might prove effective in program evaluation, and in interpreting the results of such studies.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Guidance staff should not be given the assignment for evaluation of any educational program except, perhaps, their own.

Their background and training should be utilized however, in planning methods and techniques to be used, and in interpreting the results of evaluative studies.

Discipline

School administrative staff has the responsibility to create a positive climate and environment so that learning can take place and objectives of the school can be achieved. Both students and professional staff are involved in developing and maintaining such conditions of learning, but the main influence comes through the attitudes and methods used in administration.

Discipline is usually referred to in its negative aspects of trying to correct, by punishment or other means, behavior which seems contrary to established rules or which interferes with learning.

In a more positive way, discipline may be considered as developing self-discipline; that is, preventing undesirable behavior by developing those attitudes and behavior patterns which facilitate learning. Thus discipline may be corrective, preventative or developmental.

Counselors are actively involved in preventative and developmental aspects of discipline. Administrators might well utilize guidance personnel for counseltation in interpreting student behavior, or direct referral of students, where counseling would be helpful in developing positive attitudes, or help identify problem areas. The counselor

might also be expected to make recommendations for referral of those students to other agencies or institutions, where each referral might be necessary or helpful. Punishment as a part of discipline, however, should be administrated by the administrative staff.

Williamson summerizes four roles of the counselor in a disciplinary situation as: (1) consultant (2) counseling as active rehabilitation of misbehaving offenders (3) prevention of misbehavior through counseling to achieve development in inner-control of self, and (4) counseling as a way of aiding students to perceive and to accept that external authority which influences inner development and modifies unbridled individualism. (3, p. 387)

Implications

Vocational guidance staff by background and training may be of help to administration in disciplinary responsibilities by: (1) interpreting students' actions (2) counseling with students with understandable behavior patterns and (3) prevention of misbehavior by counseling for normal development. Punishment aspects of discipline should be handled by administrative staff.

Curriculum

The Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education stated in their report that (1) curriculums have not been developed for many of the newer occupational specialties. (2) Local

and state vocational education materials for only a limited number of vocational education programs. (16, p. 202)

In recognition of this statement and awareness of demands on administrative personnel as they develop curriculum for meeting the needs of all students, the following discussion of the function guidance service personnel have in assisting administrators to make curriculum decisions is based.

Guidance service personnel have a professional responsibility, as defined by their role and function responsibilities, to relate to the administrative personnel, information concerning students' aspirations, attitudes, interests, and other individual needs which may give direction to curriculum development. Due to the nature of their relationship and contact with students, the guidance service personnel are in a position to gain insights, awareness, and unserstanding of students' individual needs. The nature of guidance service personnels' training should also make possible the compilation, development and interpretation of sociological, economic and psychological information as it relates to the community, the school population and the individual students who comprise the school population specifically. These types of information should be considered and are needed as the curriculum is developed to meet the needs of all the students.

With these points in mind, it can be stated that the

function guidance and counseling has relative to the administration of a vocational-technical education program is that of resource personnel, not the administrative assistant, not the person, persons or service area directly responsible for directing and conducting curriculum development. Guidance service personnel can best serve education by assisting students and administrative personnel, not by directing or assuming the responsibilities of either.

In-Service Education

The responsibilities for total staff development and growth rests with the administrative personnel. This would include establishing in-service activities utilizing appropriate staff where their functions, experience and/or professional preparation make contributions to the overall growth and development of such staff.

The guidance service personnel might be most effectively utilized in presenting and discussing areas of the educational process which relates to student behavior and development. More specifically, this would include vocational development, self-concept development, mental hygiene in the class room, interpretation and evaluation of appraisal data of students, use of vocational information in the class room, and/or the role and function responsibilities of guidance services.

The decisions regarding the objectives, structure and personnel utilized should be recognized and understood as

being those of the administrative personnel. Guidance service personnel should be utilized to the full limits of their functioning responsibilities, experience and professional training to assist administrative personnel to provide in-service activities.

Student Records

Establishing and administration of the program of pupil accounting for the individual pupils is the function of administration. However, its success depends on the cooperative efforts of the entire faculty. It is not uncommon to find two separate record keeping programs in operation. Most states require the school system to keep an accurate record of school attendance, grade accomplishments and age of pupils. This record is referred to as the administrative record, or the permanent record. The executive officer of the school is held responsible for the collection and maintenance of such information.

The second record keeping program, the one usually associated with the guidance services, is the "cumulative record." This record makes possible to identify the student as a unique individual.

Although the administrator has the responsibility of facilitating the program by providing time, orientating teachers to its importance and providing an adequate budget and facilities, the guidance service may be of specific assistance to the administrator in selection of proper form

to be used, collection of data about pupils interests, aptitudes, abilities, achievements and personality as well as provision of study data from which pupils, teachers and administrators may make objective judgments affecting personal, social educational and vocational choices.

Placement

Placement may be defined as helping the student make the next step in an educational or job setting. Educational placement involves movement into a class educational program, or from one educational institution to another. Job placement involves movement into a temporary job, an exploratory job such as a vocational work experience program, or an initial job in which the individual expects to remain in the labor market and with experience and/or training move to a skilled or technical position.

A survey of literature indicates that a number of authors in the field of guidance include the placement service in the school guidance program. Hollis and Hollis write, "A comprehensive guidance program includes job, social, and educational placement service to assist individuals . . ." (7, p. 354) Peters and Shertzer write about Educational Planning and Placement with emphasis on planning. (13, p. 193) "The planning of a pupil's educational program is an important educational guidance activity." (13, p. 194) Other authors discuss the position of job placement in the school guidance program. Stoops writes,

"The philosophy of education as reflected in the policies and program(s) of the school will determine the extent to which the school assumes responsibility for employment placement." (15, p. 247) Hollis, in an article in the School Counselor, states several reasons why the school must be interested in job placement. (6, p. 29) According to Moser and Moser the guidance staff should undertake placement because counselors (1) are well informed about students, (2) have records and pertinent information about students, (3) are trained in test administration and interpretation, and (4) are experts in interviewing techniques that are necessary in job placement. (11, p. 61)

A major concern of counselors and administrators is the role of the counselor in placement. As stated in the writer's definition of placement the counselor is to HELP THE STUDENT. Peters and Shertzer (13, p. 194) refer to placement as planning. The counselor should help the student plan a program fitted to the student's needs, abilities, aspirations, attitudes and values. This planning should not be limited to the student and counselor but should not be limited to the student and counselor but should include a study of the student and his opportunities by the pupil, parents, counselor, and teachers. Zeran and Riccio stated, "In placement the individual, not recruitment, is paramount." (18, p. 130) This statement presents the "guidance viewpoint" that the counselor's primary responsibility is to the student.

The act of selecting and placing a student in an educational situation is an administrative responsibility. In the vocational area the director acts on all routine applications and refers special cases to an admission committee. In other scholastic areas the department head acts on all applications.

The number and kinds of placement agencies in the community will influence the extent of the schools' job placement service. Services provided by the school and community agencies should compliment one another and not provide duplication. If a state employment office is available, the counselor should refer students seeking employment to this office. The school should obtain employment information from the state agency and enlist their aid in the testing (GATB) and counseling of students.

The counselor should serve as a catalyst in bringing together students and employers, but he should not put himself in a position of serving one by making recommendations about the other. It is not the counselor's responsibility to find a job for a student or employees for an employer. The counselor can help the teacher place students in jobs by referring to the teacher information about job openings.

Counselors should follow-up all students to evaluate their transition to a new situation and help the student adjust, if help is needed and desired by the student.

Peters and Shertzer suggest that after a student has enrolled in one curricular sequence there should be provision to permit periodic reassessment to determine the validity of the chosen sequence and to determine whether a revision of plans is indicated. (13, p. 195) A follow-up of students in jobs will provide useful data for future students, for improvement of the placement service, and for improvement of the school curriculum. The counselor may assist the administrator by screening students and supplying data identifying individual students and groups of students.

Implications

It has been implied in this paper that the school should make provisions to assist students in making the transition to a new situation, educational or vocational, and that the guidance department seems to be best equipped to administer this service.

There are other implications that the counselor, student, parent, teacher, and administrator each have a role in placement. The role of the counselor is to help the student become aware of opportunities, develop self-understanding and choose a situation that will provide the greatest opportunity for self-development.

It is recommended that school policies be developed which define the duties of the counselor, teacher and administrator in placement. It is further recommended that money, time and

secretarial assistance be provided to adequately staff the placement service.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The preceeding statements were not meant to be a final authority on what the responsibilities and functions of the vocational guidance services are or should be. That there are other areas that could have been included in this paper is quite obvious. It was the intention of the writers to present a method of procedure that might well be adopted as a guide by guidance personnel as being applicable to their particular educational setting.

It is quite possible, depending on the frame of reference, that it may be advisable or necessary to transfer certain functions to other persons or add to the functions. Whatever the case may be, it is quite obvious that in many respects the guidance services can be of assistance to the administrator in making decisions.

Administrative decisions can only come from knowledge. A channel needs to be provided by which that knowledge can be passed on to the administrator in its clearest form. Guidance services can provide this channel by accepting as a function the responsibility of acting in an advisory capacity to administration concerning the many technical aspects and administrative details which arise in the entire educational program, so that every student will have every

possible opportunity to make appropriate vocational decisions.

Whatever the case may be, it is quite certain that if vocational guidance is to operate as an efficient integral part of the total educational program for the benefit of assisting the individual to develop toward his maximum capacity, the functions and the scope of his responsibilities must be clearly outlined and thoroughly defined and accepted by the administrator to whom he is responsible. This is an axiom in the scientific management of our public school system and all its activities.

Arthur F. Payne had the following to say in support of the preceeding statement:

> We have spent a lot of time philosophising, theorizing, promoting, and propagandizing in regard to vocational guidance. It is now time to get down to the bedrock facts and conditions, make good and produce. Words, no matter what their quantity or quality, nor by whom spoken, will no longer suffice. We must change from the philosophical "I believe" to the scientific "I know." We must abandon the sentimental, impressimistic, aspiratimal, idealistic attitude that is based largely on prejudice and emotions, and adopt the scientific attitude and method in the great task that confronts us.
>
> One of our first tasks is tc adopt certain policies, elucidate certain principles, and define and limit our scope soon or we will find that such persons as the ever-experimenting, ever-defining psychologists will know more about job than we do ourselves.
>
> Just where do we stand in regard to the use of the wide variety of tests, measures and scales and the data derived by their use?
>
> Is guidance an integral part of our educational system or is it just tacked on?

> What is the place of the director of vocational guidance in the school system, to whom is he or she responsible, over whom do they have authority?
>
> What is the best method of training vocational advisors? Placement officers? What required courses should they take?
>
> We need a much better formulation of our objectives and this cannot be done until we define our terminology. Is vocational guidance just exactly that and nothing else? Or does it include both vocational and educational guidance?
>
> Just what are our functions? What are our objectives? (12, p. 398)

These statements by Payne have caused the writer, and possibly will cause the readers to wonder whether we in vocational guidance have really progressed at all when one considers that the preceeding statements by Payne were made in a book copywrighted in the year 1925.

Recommendations

1. Each school should formulate and implement job descriptions for each member of the staff, within the framework of the objectives of the school. Descriptions should be in terms of functions to be performed and responsibilities to be assumed by each staff person.

2. Guidance Services staff must assist administrators to move rapidly toward a common terminology which will promote better understanding in the area of vocational decision-making.

3. Guidance Services staff should be aware of the institutional goal to serve students and be willing at all

times to contribute to the achievement of this goal.

4. Guidance staff should communicate to administrators those areas in which they are competent to be of assistance.

5. Administrators should rely on guidance services for assistance in the organization and interpretation of cumulative records.

6. If selection is to be made, the function of the guidance services is to assist in the development of criteria and interpretation of information on applicants.

7. The staff members of the school must understand the positive self-concept in discipline in order to achieve the objectives of the school.

8. Guidance services must continually compile and present to the administrative personnel information concerning the vocational plans and educational needs of all students which must be met by the curriculum.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Blum, Melton and Benjamin Bahnsky. Counseling and Psychology. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1959.

2. Borow, Henry. Man In a World of Work. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964.

3. Crow, Lester D. "The Fuscions of Discipline, and Counseling in the Educative Process," in Readings in Guidance. New York: David McKay Company, 1962.

4. Hamrin, Shirley A. Guidance Practices in Public Schools. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight, 1940.

5. Hatch, Raymond N. and Buford Stefflre. Administration of Guidance Services. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1961.

6. Hollis, Joseph W. "Placement in the Secondary School," School Counselor, winter, 1955.

7. Hollis, Joseph William and Lucile Ussery Hollis. Organizing for Effective Guidance. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965.

8. Kelley, Janet A. Guidance and Curriculum. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1955.

9. Mathewson, Robert Henry. Guidance Policy and Practice. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955.

10. Miller, Carol H. Foundations of Guidance. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1961.

11. Moser, Leslie E. and Ruth Small Moser. Counseling and Guidance: An Exploration. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1963.

12. Payne, Arthur F. Organization of Vocational Guidance. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

13. Peters, Herman J. and Bruce Shertzer. Guidance: Program Development and Management. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1963.

14. Stoops, Emery. Guidance Services. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959.

15. Stoops, Emery (ed.). Guidance Services: Organization and Administration. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959.

16. Report of the Panel of Consultants of Vocational Education for a Changing World of Work. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Office of Education. U. S. Government Printing Office, 1964.

17. Wahlquist, Gunnar L. and Emery Stoops. Principles and Practices in Guidance. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1958.

18. Zeran, Franklin R. and Anthony C. Riccio. Organization and Administration of Guidance Services. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1962.

THE ORGANIZATION OF GUIDANCE SERVICES TO FACILITATE VOCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING

A Report

Submitted in

Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for Guidance 400

August 1966

Group 4

Lester E. Foote)
Dermot Schnack) Co-Chairmen
William Britson)
L. H. Timmerman) Co-Secretaries
Don Bloss
Adair Callison
Dellas Chastain
William Erpenbach
Janet Land
Ralph Onarheim

CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Americans in the 1960's, more than in any previous decade, acknowledge that educational programs need to go beyond dealing merely with the child and his curriculum; education for tomorrow's adults must also provide a philosophy for living. Former President Dwight D. Eisenhower, in an address to the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth, underscored the challenge when he urged,

> We must see to it that our children grow up in a climate that encourages response to intellectual challenge, in self-reliance, initiative, and a healthy regard for hard work and the dignity of man. (18, p. 94)

I. INTRODUCTION

The successful functioning of the guidance program within the contemporary school setting is dependent upon numerous human and non-human factors. Two of the most important of these determinants are well-defined program objectives and equally well organized programs of guidance services.

However, before considering specifics about guidance and its related services, it is necessary to review in part the impetus for guidance in our schools today. In this regard, Peters and Farwell contend that it is the

> . . . revolutionary concern for the whole pupil in his life situation. This concern with the various phases of a pupil's personality in the school situation together with behavioral reflections from his out-of-school situations and how they affect his growth and development has been called the guidance movement. (13, p. 2)

II. PURPOSE

The primary purpose of this paper is to develop a number of postulates for the organization of guidance services to facilitate vocational decision-making. These guidelines, as they will be considered within the framework of the paper, will be based on studies in the economic, sociological, and psychological aspects of vocational counseling with adolescents.

That counseling, especially with adolescents, for vocational decision-making is important does not have to be debated; nor will it be to any degree in this paper. Engleman noted several years ago,

> Violent vocational shifts between now and the year 2000 will force half the children born in 1960 to educate themselves vocational three times before their productive lives run out. (18, p. 219)

III. DELINEATIONS

As stated earlier in this chapter, guidance program objectives and organizational methods must be well defined if guidance is to fulfill its role in the modern school. While the identification of functions to facilitate vocational decision-making through guidance will be a major part of this paper, a consideration of program objectives

will not be to any major extent. It will be assumed that sound program objectives must be an integral part of any well-formulated program of guidance services.

Further, it will not be the purpose of this paper to develop philosophical considerations for vocational counseling nor to dwell on a definition of terms unique to guidance. These factors must also be assumed for the purposes of this paper.

CHAPTER II

BASIC FACTS

As a basis for drawing implications and establishing guidelines for the structural organization of guidance services to facilitate vocational decision-making, the following positions to guidance are reviewed.

I. PHILOSOPHY OF GUIDANCE

Guidance should function throughout the educational program, and the organizational structure for the local guidance program should be based on the larger educational philosophy of the school and the community. Hollis and Hollis state that, ". . . guidance is the personalized part of education that permeates the entire educational program rather than being set apart from it." (7, p. V) Guidance is based on the nature of the individual, the activities of the individual, and the individual's needs. (7, pp. 6-8) Guidance should be developmental in nature and includes examining decisions made and to be made, determining courses of action, and resolving concerns and problems. (5, p. 3) In addition, guidance services should be available to all students.

II. SERVICES AVAILABLE

While there is some disagreement among authorities as

to the specific nomenclature and classification of the various guidance services, a review of the literature indicates that the following described services are a vital part of a total guidance program.

1. Individual Assessment - understanding and interpreting to the student his abilities, aptitudes, interests and other personal assets and/or liabilities.
2. Information - making available a wide range of material to assist individuals in making immediate decisions as well as long-range choices.
3. Counseling - a process of assisting pupils to understand themselves, and to make decisions based upon these self-understandings and the information available to them.
4. Placement - assisting an individual in securing an educational, vocational, or social position, in accordance with his abilities and desires, as based on his self-appraisal.
5. Follow-up and Evaluation - the determination of the degree to which the student has benefited from his educational experiences as obtained by a systematic procedure of contacting him periodically, and, in the light of his responses, determining the effectiveness of the school program.

III. TYPES OF ORGANIZATION

It is generally recognized that programs of guidance services follow common organizational patterns. Hollis and Hollis describe three constructs for this organization:

1. Centralized - in this type of organization guidance services are usually located in a central area, and are under the supervision of a guidance specialist. This type of program is designed for efficiency and, because of this, the number and types of services may be larger.
2. Decentralized - with this type of organization the responsibility for all guidance functions is placed upon each member of the school staff. When carried to the ultimate each teacher is, in theory, a guidance specialist.
3. Combination - as the name implies this is a joining of the two just described. Ideally, the advantages of each would be kept and the disadvantages eliminated. It is probable that most of the guidance programs could be most easily fitted into this category. (7, pp. 88-98)

IV. GUIDANCE AS A PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICE

An emerging trend in public education has been the development, within the total school organization, of a section entitled pupil personnel services. The underlying purposes of this service is to assist the learner in adapting

to the school program and to help the school program adapt to the learner. (5, p. 5) The pupil personnel concept was given considerable impetus by the Policy Statement of the Council of Chief State School Officers which stated, "Pupil personnel services are an essential component of an adequate educational program, and should be emphasized as an integral aspect of the total instructional process." (3, p. 5)

This service, facilitative in nature consists of five areas: guidance, psychological, school social work, health and medical, and attendance. Of these, "Guidance is the most rapidly developing area of all pupil personnel services." (5, p. 39)

With the acceptance of guidance as a basic part of all students' educational experiences, guidance has moved from its early concern with vocational placement to a concern with the total personality. This change has been illustrated by Ferguson in the following statement:

> Formerly, counseling was viewed primarily as a technique used in helping youngsters make vocational and educational choices. Now, with an emphasis on social and emotional factors in learning, on the total personality, and on the influence of culture in determining pupil development, counseling is seen as a way of helping with the broad range of questions and concerns that pupils face as part of growing up . . . .
>
> This new emphasis has come about in large measure as a result of explorations in the aims of American education, particularly the objective of self-realization. Although educators are just beginning to explore the real meaning of self-realization, it is apparent that the concept involves more than simply realization in reading, writing, and the other academic skills.

> In addition, it relates to the learner's developing fully his potential for rich living and citizenship through better self-understanding. Much more than intellectual skill is required for adjustment in today's fast moving and highly complicated world. (5, pp. 40-41)

V. IMPORTANCE OF UNITY IN GUIDANCE

These changes in concept and emphasis illustrate the necessity of eliminating the dichotomous approach to guidance, when educational and vocational guidance are considered as separate entities.

Writing in the Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Hoyt presents the following description of recent events and points up the necessity for avoiding a dichotomized approach. (8)

In HR Bill 3000, the original version of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, responsibility for guidance was assigned to employment service counselors. Through the leadership of the American Vocational Association, the wording was changed to make guidance a part of public education, as the other parts of the Act were already. The references to guidance in the Vocational Education Act make use of the term "vocational guidance." This terminology has resulted in attempts to establish two types of counselors in the schools, "school counselors" and "vocational counselors."

In the same article, Hoyt lists four basic reasons for the necessity of maintaining the unity of guidance in the high school.

1. Sufficient funds do not exist for the establishment of a dual system.
2. The establishment of a dual system would result in further splitting the "vocational" and "academic" faculty in the high school at a time when all efforts should be directed towards bringing them closer together.
3. The creation of a dual role would tend to reinforce a dangerous tendency to relegate the job of educational-vocational guidance to a lesser place in the scale of importance.
4. Finally, the creation of a dual role would create a greater tendency, on the part of some counselors, to concentrate their efforts to a greater degree on those students concerned with college entrance. (8)

The dangers of this split approach have also been presented by Knapp in his book, Practical Guidance Methods for Counselors, Teachers and Administrators. (10, p. 86)

VI. CRITICAL ISSUES

To assume that all factors having implications for the organization of guidance services to facilitate vocational decision-making could be enumerated in this paper would be an extreme exaggeration of reality. There are, however, a number of factors which have been determined as basic and eminently related to the topic. These factors hold definite implications for the organization of any system for

performing guidance services. An attempt will be made to introduce and discuss briefly a number of these factors which seem to contain the greatest importance.

Poverty

The public concern for poverty has increased at a rapid rate in recent years. The people have voiced their avowed intent to correct this situation by directing their government to enact legislation in the form of the Economic Opportunities Act. From the voiced intent of leaders in this area, we can reasonably assume that the program will be supported and supplemented until the situation is alleviated. To a great extent, the means for this will be through appropriate employment for those involved.

The Changing Industrial Scene

The changing industrial scene, from one where the young could observe the production of goods and materials in his community, to the highly complex automated process within the factory surrounded by a fence with a closed gate bearing the sign "Employees Only," has deprived the nation's youth of a valuable means of gaining vocational information leading to vocational choice. If the young are to make valid vocational decisions under the existing situation, vocational information must be supplied by other means.

Realization of Potential

The motivation of individuals (particularly those from culturally different and economically disadvantaged environments) to pursue goals consistent with their developmental potential is a prime consideration. As the nation has grown more sophisticated in the matter of business and finance, the economic benefits of a productive citizenry have become more appreciated. From a humanistic point of view, personal worth and dignity of the individual are enhanced when opportunity for maximum realization of potential is provided.

The conservation of all youth and the basic worth of every individual has long been society's concern in the United States. Because the school is society's best device in providing for the needs of its youth, the school has a responsibility to provide suitable preparation for all youth. It is essential that schools exert greater effort in the demanding task of preparing for job entry that proportion of youth whose education ceases at, or below, the high school level. (17, p. 12)

The Responsibility for Valid Vocational Decisions

The responsibility for the preparation of the nation's youth for valid vocational decision-making has been identified, to a great extent, as a responsibility of the schools. The President's Committee on Youth Employment issued a report in June, 1963, stating that,

> Counselors armed with reliable information concerning present vocational opportunities and future trends can do much to motivate all young people to make and carry out educational and vocational plans in line with their abilities and needs of the national economy. (17, p. 37)

Psychological Devices

A vast array of devices for gaining psychological information is available to facilitate vocational decision-making. Included in these are: aptitude tests, personality inventories, intelligence tests, etc. While these many and varied methods of measuring human potentialities have their limitations, these devices with proper interpretation can be invaluable in helping form a basis for a career choice.

Existence of Governmental Programs

The years since 1913 have brought a vast array of programs designed to help young people select, prepare for and enter into the world of work. The U.S. Office of Education and the Department of Labor have expanded their services in recent years. The National Defense Education Act of 1958 has supported guidance and counseling through the training of counselors and financial support for guidance within the states. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 provides for support of counseling as well as educational and training programs. The O.E.O., the Youth Corps, and the Job Corps are all evidences of Federal concern for youth

and their preparation for participation in the main stream of the American culture.

The Nature of Vocational Decision-Making

The nature of the vocational development through which youth progress is of prime importance in the total area of vocational decision-making process.

Super advances a structural method of vocational choice in which he categorizes the developmental phases in the following stages: growth stage, exploratory stage, establishment stage, maintenance stage, and declining stage. (1, p. 37) Ginzberg proposes a similar structure of development by listing three stages: Fantasy, Tentative, and Realistic. (6, p. 492)

No effort will be made to enumerate herein all theories advanced on the nature of vocational decision-making. The purpose of this discussion is to establish the concept of the existence of a pattern.

Vocational decision-making may not be effective if approached only as a function of the economy, or of social and cultural factors, or of individual abilities and aptitudes. The process must operate to give appropriate attention to each of these, but even more important, to the dynamics of the interaction of these variables and the impact upon the individual. The functioning of the individual in his present and probable future environment is the point of departure in studying the psychological dimensions of vocational counseling.

CHAPTER III

IMPLICATIONS

In developing the general purpose of this paper, frequent reference has been made to the principle of educating each pupil to the fullest extent in light of his particular abilities, aptitudes, and interests. The basic premise for organization of the guidance services must then also be a proponent of this maxim.

I. ORGANIZATION

In the establishment of a program of guidance services, or the re-evaluation of an existing plan, it seems desirable to inventory what has been done previously within the confines of the particular school system. Next, a realistic set of program objectives must be developed. Finally, a plan of action for implementing the various guidance services can be initiated.

There are then many implications for the chief guidance officer in each school system as he seeks to establish a suitable program of guidance services. Five critical implications are considered here.

1. The guidance services are not intended to be synonymous with the general education program of a school. Neither, however, are these services intended to be a supplementary to the school program. A program of guidance services must

be organized to operate as an educational contributor to increase a student's knowledge of himself and his world.

2. There is an inherent danger that administrators will think of guidance programs as panaceas for any deficiencies in school systems. The general organization and tasks of the guidance services must be functional to those areas of responsibility that are clearly guidance in nature.

3. The program of guidance services must function as an integral part of the school system. The temptation to consider guidance services as a priviledged "prodigy" and therefore exempt from the boundaries of administrative jurisdiction must never be entertained. The general operation of the guidance services must be in context with administrative policies of the school principal or superintendent, the goals of the teaching staff, and the pupils to be served.

4. There exists in some areas, the opinion that a program of guidance services brings with it something new and distinct to the school. This is a deceptive generalization. In his book, The Counselor in a Changing World, C. Gilbert Wrenn comments on the subject as follows:

> The counselor's job in the school has always been that of bringing additional understandings and skills to the discharge of normal school functions. Provision will be made for the basic elements of a school program whether or not a counselor is present . . . . The counselor or other members of the (pupil) personnel team, add

> to what well-qualified teachers already know about individual differences, motivational readiness, (etc.) . . . . (19, p. 152)

5. The chief guidance officer in each school system must carry the responsibility for the success or failure of the guidance services. To do this is obviously not a simple, step-by-step procedure. Nevertheless, the responsibility for the harmonious program integration, the role of evaluator, innovator, and instigator, and overall leadership must be accepted not as token assignments but as professional obligations.

II. FACILITIES

Adequate and proper space and facilities for the conduction of counseling and related duties should be an item of prime consideration in organizing a guidance program, if it is to function successfully as an integral part of the total educational program.

III. STAFFING AND ROLES

The demands of our technological world make it imperative that education be a continuous and life-long process.

The chief school administrator is ultimately responsible for the selection and assignment of school counselors. If the young people of a community are to be adequately served, the utmost care must be taken in the selection of people to staff these counseling positions.

Meeting the developmental needs of children is an

essential element in an effective guidance program.

IV. SUPPORTING SERVICE

Good communication and a closser working relationship between guidance services and administrators, school staffs, students, parents, specialists, community agencies and individuals is basic to the effective functioning of a guidance program. The value of developmental guidance and the spirit of the pupil personnel concept provide a focus for this interaction and communication. Counselors as active participants in making policy which is related to planning the whole school program, as well as the guidance program, have a valuable contribution to make.

V. IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

In-service education begins when performance needs to be improved. Diagnosing needs involves evaluation of a staff's readiness to change. Readiness develops as a result of staff dissatisfaction with present procedures, plans, or performances. (16, p. 473)

A wide range of approaches have been used to conduct in-service education guidance programs in schools. The approach in each school must be one which fits the particular school situation emerging from the needs of students, staff and administrators. (16, p. 474) The assumption that in-service education is important to functioning guidance services is based on the belief that all staff

and administrators are key persons in the guidance program. The quality of contribution by each is dependent upon their competencies. (16, p. 464)

The above assumption is supported by the focus of guidance in-service education programs meeting the needs of the individual student. The guidance function then helps to meet these needs by bringing the student into a more meaningful relationship with the total educational program. It then becomes necessary to increase the effectiveness of the total educational program by improving the quality of the guidance services. The quality of guidance services may be improved substantially by increasing staff and administrative competencies through planned, organized, and continuing in-service education. (12, p. 2)

"The school administration, authorized by the board of education, is responsible for the initiation, development, and maintenance, of a continuing program of guidance in-service education." (12, p. 8) With this establishment of the direct line of authority vested in the school administration, it becomes clear that the responsibility of the guidance and counseling personnel is to furnish administrators with the essential organizational framework information, adaptable to the changing needs of the systems.

CHAPTER IV

RECOMMENDATIONS

The pupil personnel movement seems to suggest an organizational pattern which might ultimately benefit students because of the opportunities for close working relationships among the specialists who provide pupil services. With this thought in mind the following recommendations are made.

I. ORGANIZATION

1. The concept of "programmed counseling" needs further study and evaluation to facilitate greater utilization of this technique.

2. There is a need for role identification for each of the entities comprising the pupil personnel services. The "pupil personnel team" approach in meeting the needs of pupils will be most effective only after each member of the "team" identifies and operates with its particular role.

3. The U. S. Office of Education should seek means of developing cooperation between its office and the U. S. Department of Defense's educational programs. An ultimate goal of this undertaking should provide for better laison between local school systems and armed service educational programs.

II. FACILITIES

It is advantageous for counseling facilities to be located in close proximity to related personnel services such as psychological, health, and attendance, to allow for closer cooperation between these services. Entrance to the counseling facilities should be approached from the corridor.

III. STAFFING AND ROLES

Recommendations to School Administrators

1. Employ only those aplicants who have met full counselor certification requirements.

2. Require a minimum of two years teaching experience for school counselors.

3. Develop cooperatively with the guidance staff a definitive list of objectives and goals for the guidance program.

4. Adopt as one goal that of helping students reach maturity in decision-making.

5. Provide personnel and financial resources for follow-up and evaluation studies.

6. Assist counselor training institutions to evaluate their programs by a "feedback" process in which strengths and weaknesses of counselor preparation are communicated to them at frequent intervals.

IV. SUPPORTING SERVICES

Recommendations to School Counselors

1. Assist administrators in their understandings of guidance program objectives and advise them in decisions relative to: a. staffing, b. defining roles and responsibilities, c. providing adequate budget, d. providing adequate space, facilities, clerical help, etc., e. general policies and activities of the educational and guidance programs.

2. Take an active part in helping faculties accept the pupil personnel concept in order to make it function in their work with students.

3. Devote the necessary time and effort to promote the team approach in working with various specialists. Work closely with each one to determine procedures for his greatest effectiveness.

4. Explain to the student body the purpose of the guidance program, how it may be of help to them, and how they may assist in its development. Students can help by: a. serving as the liaison between the school and the home, b. evaluating present services, and c. suggesting, through student-faculty committees or student councils, ideas for improving the guidance program.

5. Implement plans for greater utilization of community resources; agencies and individuals.

6. Review and evaluate the procedures that determine which students receive guidance and counseling help.

7. Organize guidance services to permit all students to receive the help they need.

V. IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

The following are suggestions, in partial fulfillment of the supportive informational needs of administrators to facilitate student vocational decision-making through guidance in-service education:

1. Set definitive objectives.
2. Establish a precise definition of program functions.
3. Define boundaries of the in-service program.
4. Provide for information and record data.
5. Establish clear-cut lines of responsibility and authority.
6. Use the scientific approach in methods and techniques of analyzing student needs.
7. Adopt a flexible schedule structure.
8. Utilize supportive curriculum adaptable to changing needs.
9. Recognize evidences of the dynamics of professionally trained personnel.
10. Demonstrate by enthusiasm through action that there is increased cooperation and coordination in provision of guidance services.
11. Initiate research supporting follow-up.
12. Think in terms of optimum possibilities rather than in minimum essentials. (9, p. 428)

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

Guidance has an obligation to serve all youth with its special competencies and it can best carry out this obligation by ever being ready to assist young people as they strive to know themselves, to understand the world about them and to plan for the future. In the face of increasing pressure to fragment and specialize, guidance workers are challenged to be adequate in all areas of counseling and guidance rather than categorically confined in one or two specialties.

Guidance counselors stand in a unique position vis-a-vis the student. As non-judgmental advocates for the individual, counselors are in a strategic position because they participate in the adult world toward which the child in maturing and they are close to the world as perceived by the child.

The counselor's objective is one of helping the counselee develop a model for decision-making. Decision-making, thus, becomes not an end in itself, but a vehicle whereby the student learns how to make his own decisions.

In order to serve both youth and society, school personnel in the helping relationships are challenged to unite their efforts within the Pupil Personnel Services framework.

Guidance has a unique responsibility in Pupil Personnel Service, i.e., to act as an advocate for the individual in the face of increased societal demands for conformity. In addition, Guidance Services have an obligation to its tradition and its future potential to exercise leadership in the formation of Pupil Personnel Service organizations.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Buehler, Charlotte, as described in Donald Super, et al. Vocational Development - A Framework for Research; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College Columbia University, 1957.

2. Byrne, Richard Hill. The School Counselor. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1963.

3. Council of Chief State School Officers. Responsibilities of State Departments of Education for Pupil Personnel Services. Washington, 1960.

4. Educational Policies Commission. Manpower and Education. Washington: National Education Association, 1956.

5. Ferguson, Donald G. Pupil Personnel Services. Washington D.C.: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1963.

6. Ginzberg, Eli. "Toward a Theory of Occupational Choice," Personnel and Guidance Journal. Volume 31, April, 1952.

7. Hollis, Joseph and Lucille Hollis. Organizing for Effective Guidance. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1965.

8. Hoyt, Kenneth B. "New Challenges for Guidance in Vocational Education," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Volume 49, No. 301, May, 1965.

9. Humphreys, J. Anthony and Arthur E. Traxler. Guidance Services. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1954.

10. Knapp, Robert H. Practical Guidance Methods for Counselors, Teachers, and Administrators. New York: McGraw-Hill Company, 1953.

11. Mathewson, Robert Henry. Guidance Policy and Practice. New York: Harper Brothers, 1955.

12. Office of Education OE -25044, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. In-Service Education for School Counselors. Bulletin No. 33, 1965.

13. Peters, Herman J. and Gail F. Farwell. Guidance: A Developmental Approach. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1959.

14. Peters, Herman J. and James C. Hansen. Vocational Guidance and Career Development. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.

15. Peters, Herman and Bruce Shertzer. Guidance: Program Development and Management. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Incorporated, 1963.

16. Peters, Herman J. and Bruce Shertzer. Guidance Program Development and Management. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1964.

17. President's Committee on Youth Employment. Reports of Subcommittees of the President's Committee on Youth Employment. Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, June, 1963.

18. White House Conference on Children and Youth. Conference Proceedings. Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, Inc., 1960.

19. Wrenn, C. Gilbert. The Counselor in a Changing World. Washington: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1962.

20. Zeran, Franklin R. and Anthony C. Riccio. Organization and Administration of Guidance Services. Chicago: Rand, McNally and Company, 1962.